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FOREWORD

THIS ISSUE OF THE REVIEW, dealing with mental and physical health, represents the first combination of these two fields, in line with the new list of topics agreed upon some time ago. One former issue, that of December 1936, dealt with mental hygiene; subsequent treatments of certain aspects of this field appeared in the issues for February 1937 (Chapter IV), April 1939 (Chapters III and IV), June 1939 (Chapter III), December 1939 (Chapters V through VIII, and XI), and June 1940 (Chapter X). Physical health and health education have been treated previously only in individual chapters, the latest ones appearing in the issues of December 1937 (Chapter V), February 1938 (Chapter VII), and June 1940 (Chapter X). In a sense the present issue is complementary to that of February 1939 which dealt with normal mental and physical development; the present issue treats the problem of remaining normal or of reducing deviations from the normal.

Taken together, the chapters of this issue present an impressive picture of rapid development in the study of mental and physical health. Important shifts in point of view are noted, new means of diagnosis and therapy are being explored, mental and physical aspects of well-being are viewed in new interrelationships, and an attempt at evaluation of outcomes and appraisal of methods is being made. All of the manuscripts have been severely cut—some of them practically in half—on account of space limitations. The remaining material, however, presents a compact and comprehensive picture of work in important areas that are too little known by many educators.

DOUGLAS E. SCATES

Chairman of the Editorial Board

INTRODUCTION

THIS VOLUME is ample testimony to the fact that much knowledge important for education is being discovered by workers laboring in territory which has not heretofore been considered to be within the province of the professional educator. For example, the content here ranges from research on the pre-psychotic personality, drawn from the literature on psychiatry, to research directly related to cultural anthropology. It is becoming increasingly clear that some of our most fruitful understandings of childhood and youth are based on research in fields adjacent to the field of education. Because of the growing emphasis on the close relationship between mental and physical health future numbers of this issue will probably include a review of studies of psychosomatic relations, especially as they influence behavior in childhood and youth.

The field of mental health and adjustment still suffers from vague terminology and even more vague boundaries. Moreover, the nature of its subjectmatter makes it peculiarly difficult to investigate in ways which satisfy the rigorous demands of scientific methodology. In spite of these limitations, a body of research related to the effective adjustment of the individual is appearing in amount and with competence sufficient to justify a systematic review of its content. The committee hopes the reader will accept the following report as evidence of this fact.

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, *Chairman*
Committee on Mental Hygiene and Health Education

CHAPTER I

Trends in Mental Hygiene: An Interpretation¹

GEORGE S. STEVENSON

Mental Hygiene and Democratic Principles

THE PRINCIPLES that have been enunciated for mental hygiene are in 1940 undergoing a severe test. This test is the conflict that is being waged between democratic tendencies on the one hand and authoritarian tendencies on the other. In this contest mental hygiene as now conceived is identified more closely with democratic aims, although further knowledge may show a greater need for regulation of human living than is now apparent in order to maintain mental health and at the same time preserve the maximum of productivity and satisfaction. The essence of democracy is that it respects the dignity and strengths of the individual and encourages the fullest possible development of his potentialities as he attempts to express them without constricting a similar opportunity for others. Authoritarianism has little confidence in the strengths of the person, but much in those of the director. Those promoting mental hygiene seek to capitalize individual potentialities, to rate personal strengths high, and to center on growth of the person rather than on mere preservation of his status.

The ultimate test of the principle of democracy lies not in its vulnerability to outside attack, but in the strength of the individual to withstand aggressions from within himself and his own society; and in his capacity to weigh the need for the exercise of authority so that he provides it and receives it sufficiently but not in excess. To those of great personal power unnecessary restrictions are mentally unhealthy, whereas for those whose strengths are limited, great responsibility is equally disintegrating. Mental hygiene takes account of the fact that individuals differ in their need of direction; democracy tries to do this but is hampered by the resistance of the individual to inferior classification. If democracy is a static pattern which cannot change to follow the needs of the individual its relation to the mental health of the people may be brought seriously into question. Between a democracy, however, which is subject to change to meet the potentialities of man, and mental hygiene, there can be no conflict for mental health is the lordship of man by himself. The degree of this lordship must of course be variable; for the mental defective it is more limited. Democracy is a rationalization of man's urge to be himself. Mental hygiene is the accumulation of science that should show how this end can be achieved.

The last twenty-five or thirty years have seen this democratic principle become less a superficial political slogan, as it was to such a degree in the

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 472.

'nineties, and more of a cultural guide that seems to have crystallized out of our history. It is as if it took 150 years to mellow the individualism of the pioneer with social responsibility and merge it with the likewise mellowed submissiveness of the newcomer. This respect for the person was more than the separate evolutions of individual professional fields, since medicine, teaching, theology, law, and social work almost simultaneously have come to be concerned for man as an individual. It is as if we suddenly realized that the value of the person, as it stood out in the days of the family doctor, the ungraded schools, and neighborly charity, had suddenly slipped away from us in the massive growth of our population—and realizing this we struggled to get it back.

Mental Hygiene and Education

The capacity to recite statements of facts is different from the capacity to use facts. We have gone through a period of presenting courses in mental hygiene in which the lecturer talked and propounded principles and the class remained quiet; we have passed through a period when mental hygiene prospectuses were issued that encouraged students to play roles quite foreign to their own spontaneous behavior, because such roles would get them jobs. In another period it became all important that children are influenced by the personalities of their associates, including the teachers, and so the traits of teachers were analyzed to find elements that make for a good or poor teacher and a good or poor atmosphere for children. Students to be trained as teachers began being selected with these qualities in mind and their education was aimed to develop such qualities. This movement, which is still strong, has contributed in a gross way but it has not done much to clarify the more subtle elements of the educational process. There have been many exceptions to the trait formulations, quantification has been difficult, and many other variables have to be taken into account (such as variable school administration and variable children) so that traits that hold good in one situation fail in another. A progressive teacher under a reactionary administration may be confusing to the children as well as unhappy himself.

More recently the oneness of this approach has come to be appreciated. It is beginning to be seen that the essence of growth is not the acquisition of a bit of knowledge gained by listening or reading. The crux of education for a child seems rather to be a sort of "inspired moment," an episode of pupil-teacher relationship into which multifarious components enter and during which the child adds valuable knowledge and experience to his growth and integrates it in such a way that it becomes a part of his spontaneous tendency. At this moment the child seems to throw off defenses and opens himself up to experiences that would contribute to his growth. He then expresses his potentialities and experiences the satisfaction that comes from such expression.

This satisfaction or positive affect constitutes a vehicle upon which new experience enters his life more deeply and becomes a part of him. During this episode the teacher, or perhaps another child, stepping in with the right opportunity for satisfying experience and the right assurances makes the pupil comfortable in the fact that this dropping of defenses is good and furthermore gives the pupil the right opportunity and the right support to follow through as he is inclined. It must be recognized, however, that such an inspired moment has potentialities for retardation as well as for growth and may be destructive if the affective vehicle carries the wrong increment to growth or if the affect is so unpleasant that it tends to leave the child with the feeling that this opening of his defenses is dangerous. The occurrence of such inspired moments when two personalities come together with mutual growth (for it reflects also on the teacher) appears to be the essence of education. The relationship embodies the fullest respect for the pupil's strengths. But the discovery of such moments scattered here and there throughout the classroom day as described by Baxter (3) has proved to be only a first step. A closer inspection of the classroom process, such as Anderson's (2), shows that in reality the day is a continuum of such episodes, more or less rapidly changing, now involving two people and now in greater complexes, now involving the teacher and now involving only classmates, now positive in value and now working against the child's personal growth.

This seems to be the line along which education, with the fullest respect for the child, is in a position to advance. The teacher-pupil relationship that is patterned after a parent-child or authority-subject type is restricted by all the attitudes toward domination that most children acquire and against which they continually defend themselves. A shift of viewpoint whereby the teacher becomes a professional person serving a client, the pupil, has much to commend it if it is worked out carefully with full recognition of the limitations of a child. This concept of education as a continuum of inspired moments regards the classroom as a life experience of a child which is molding him helpfully or otherwise, rather than as a technical instrument, fortified by desks, maps, and blackboards, for the transmission of some knowledge.

Morale of Teachers

Two adverse influences on the mental health of teachers should be noted. In spite of all that is done by our best teachers colleges to fortify their graduates with appreciation for, and technics to develop the strengths of the child, the communities in which these teachers work after graduation commonly have contrary ideas. They reflect an older concept of education which is often sufficient to block the teacher in carrying through her ideals and to precipitate her into a technical performance far inferior to her ideals. Several colleges (e.g. Leland Stanford University) have attempted to main-

tain the morale of the teacher by extending their support through a field consultation service to graduates. The other drag upon the mental hygiene of the teacher is the inadequate solution of teacher security. In many places there is insecurity owing to political uncertainties. In other places the pendulum has swung to the opposite extreme in tenure laws, and teacher competence cannot be made a condition of tenure because competence is ill-defined and incompetence cannot be proved. The only solution apparent at the present time is the development of a higher professional feeling on the part of teachers, whereby they will be aggressive in the defining of competence and in the elimination of incompetent members of their profession.

Child Psychiatry

Characteristic of the child psychiatry of the 1920's was the trait viewpoint. If the child with problems of behavior could only bask in the light of a parent playing the right role, or in the right social or economic environment, all would go well. Frequently it did, but at times when things seemed to be right the "movement"² went in the wrong direction. Psychoanalysis has done much to show that traits and atmosphere are not constant. Their value may change from day to day. The value of any experience depends upon the peculiarities of the child at the time of his experiencing it.

Levy (8) and others have pointed out the fallacy of certain adult interpretations of children's experience and have enriched our appreciation of the fundamental needs of children. Levy reported that the need for sucking in the infant and the need for affection and fondling in children are more constantly present and more closely akin to a physiological hunger than has been appreciated. The effect of deprivation of these needs has been clarified and resulting behavior peculiarities are now discernible and treatable. The study explains in part why some children open up for growth easily and others with more difficulty and differently to different persons. Allen (1) and his co-workers have shown that "inspired moments" have values out of all proportion to their duration. A momentary episode having a special affective value for a child may neutralize days of contrary experience. This is true of either pleasant or unpleasant experiences. A few scattered hours of experience for a child in a therapeutic setting freed of neurotic adults may be sufficient to lead the child away from patterns of his own that are determined by neurotic surroundings. We have long recognized, on the negative side, that a brief traumatic experience may seriously modify behavior. This principle is now developed for its positive values and suggests new strength in the school in spite of the fact that it has the child for such a small duration of his growing life.

² A term used to indicate change in the condition of the patient. This change might be progressive or retrogressive, or temporarily retrogressive as a prelude to a forward movement.

The Department of Psychiatry at the University of Oregon (5) has set up a statewide service that is intimately bound up with the schools and directed toward the development of the individual strengths of children. A report by Witmer (10) showing how states provide psychiatric services for children offers a springboard from which advances may be expected in many parts of the country. French's analysis (7) of psychiatric social work, including visiting teacher work, also helps to clear the way between the psychiatric clinical service in the community and the public schools. Recent studies of the birth injured who suffer from spastic paralysis make it probable that there are exceptions where the spastic paralysis may be obscure or absent but the damage to intelligence more serious. Likewise electro-encephalographic studies have turned attention again to the constitutional or neurological foundation of psychological function.

Mental Hygiene in Industry

The trait emphasis at present holds the advance position and leads to a search for the type of employee who can produce and enhance profits. It involves searching into the characteristics of both successful and unsuccessful employees. Such is, however, a one-sided suit, for it promises no additional personal gain for the employee; it only threatens the incompetent. The newer approach centers on the inspired moment. It recognizes that supervision in industry is a continuum of interpersonal episodes. "The condition that is good for the employee is good also for profits," may replace the present slogan "If the employee is good for profits, that is good for the employee." Gross trait differentiations undoubtedly have value but the subtler and often crucial elements are more subject to the newer principle. Under this concept one begins his scrutiny with the top of the organization and repairs fences as he goes down, rather than the reverse. The implications of this for school administration and thence for the teacher and eventually for the child are large.

Medical and Social Opportunities for Mental Hygiene

These trends toward a higher valuation of the person and of the interpersonal phenomenon in human development are showing in other ways potentially if not immediately of interest to education. Three large foundations have devoted serious attention to this element in the field of medicine. The Rockefeller Foundation in 1939 appropriated over \$400,000 to psychiatric projects chiefly in medical schools. The Commonwealth Fund has for the past few years devoted special attention to the preparation of pediatricians to seize the mental hygiene opportunities with which they are confronted. Closely allied is the higher appreciation of the doctor-patient relationship and the inspired moments in this relationship as expressed in the psychosomatic program sponsored by the Josiah H. Macy Jr. Founda-

tion. As this affects the stability of the parent, it is merely one step removed from safeguarding the child directly.

Social work is concerned with some harsh realities. The empty stomach needs food; the cold body needs shelter or clothing. But while it might be supposed that meeting these needs ought to make needy people satisfied, it often does not. There are certain ultra-realities, things beyond the obvious realities; these are attitudes often found in needy people—attitudes that are closely bound up with the solidarity of the home and the family. The social worker has been forced to recognize and deal with them. This is why the visiting teacher has a large place in affecting the home influence that the child carries into the classroom. There is no doubt that these same subtleties have a large bearing on the child's readiness to expose himself to education.

Legal and Court Practices

Unfortunately our laws have not been as consistently progressive as the processes of these fields. The increase in the poll tax laws, restrictions on the appointment of married women, and hampering residence requirements for appointments to positions or for granting licenses reflect a loss of respect for individual strengths and limitations that is out of line with actual fact. These recessions are important in revealing the shallowness of some of our mental health and the immaturity and vulnerability of our democracy and warn us not to be too complacent. A recent report on the prevention of delinquency in children similarly reflects the shallowness of our respect for basic human needs. In this report the two most frequent types of delinquency listed were playing ball in the street and riding bicycles on the sidewalk—in a congested metropolis. At the same time a real advance is made in the handling of juvenile delinquency when the Allegheny County Juvenile Court recognizes that it is destructive to the child and heightens the conflicts that surround him, if his neighbors and parents are brought into open hostility by formal court procedure. Instead a sort of legal-clinical procedure is substituted through private and separate interviews with all concerned, whereby greater equanimity is preserved and a better appreciation of the problem is arrived at.

Coordination and Progress

It is evident from the many crisscrossings of responsibility between the various community agencies as they begin to be more intelligently interested in man that mechanisms for insuring the unity of action between these agencies is inevitable. A unity is needed that respects oneness of the people that these agencies are serving. The mental hygiene of the person served will have a large part to play in determining how those who serve him work together. In this process it is also inevitable that attention will drift

back again from the institution to the person where it began. Such coordinative efforts are already apparent, sometimes involving many fields, sometimes only two. The White House Conference of 1940 was a large coordinative effort. The National Conference of Social Work brings together many health, welfare, educational, and religious groups. The American Orthopsychiatric Association brings psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, and educators into an open forum. The Association for Research in Child Development is a clearing house for scientific data on child development derived from medicine, dentistry, psychology, education, biochemistry, and others. The Coordinating Councils as developed in Los Angeles are a machinery set up to insure working together.

These stages of development that have characterized the last twenty years are not to be thought of as successive replacements with the discarding of the old approaches, but as an enrichment and refinement of existing method and concept. It is still valid to safeguard the setting of the child, only we now have an increased confidence in human capacity to cope with variables in setting and a decreased confidence in the absolute goodness of any setting. Good housing is, for example, still a necessity. It is still valid to take traits into account in predicting the performance of people, only we do not stop there. We still try to help the person of borderline intelligence to a more realistic ambition than that of being a teacher. At the same time we may see that such a person trained as a nursemaid has potentialities for companionship with a child that is mutually beneficial. The point is that we are not inclined to stop with a consideration of traits but to go on to that "atom" of living, the inspired moment.

CHAPTER II

Adjustment in the Family Situation¹

HAROLD H. ANDERSON

Marital Relations and Adult Personal Adjustments

SOME ATTEMPT to gather data on marital relations has been made in a large number of studies. An arbitrary division for convenience of treatment can be drawn between those studies concerned chiefly with the husband and wife and research concerned with the way in which marital relations and adult personality impinge on the child. Among the former, where the emphasis is mainly on adults, are a number of major studies, including textbooks for marriage courses and books for counseling.

In the order of publication, J. Levy and Munroe (87) produced a readable book replete with case illustrations; Waller (157) wrote a textbook on the general theme of the influence of the family on human personality, stressing social interaction at different stages in the life cycle; E. Mowrer (98) revised and brought up to date an earlier edition of his book on family disorganization; Folsom (52) edited a book by seven authors which was an outgrowth of a course at Vassar; Jung (73) edited a book by twenty authors which grew out of a course on marriage at the University of Iowa. Books also useful in courses on marriage and the family but based entirely or in part on original research are by Baber (13), Burgess and Cottrell (28), and Terman and others (148).

Publications in the field of counseling are articles by Plant (111), Popehoe (115), Wile (160), and Mudd (100); the latter reported an analysis of 100 consecutive cases in the Marriage Counsel of Philadelphia. Butterfield (31) published in book form an enlargement of a pamphlet on sex life in marriage which was used in marriage consultations by the Family Guidance Service of New York City. Moreno (96) reported a theoretical discussion together with case illustrations of the use of the "therapeutic theatre" in the psychodramatic treatment of marriage problems.

Ferguson (50), in order to make an earlier study by G. V. Hamilton comparable with the study by Terman and associates (148), subjected the Hamilton data to a critical analysis and found that some of the conclusions arrived at by Hamilton were not statistically confirmed. Terman and Johnson (147), in a critical review of the major researches on the correlates of marital happiness during the preceding decade, discussed the methods and findings of three studies based on the anonymous questionnaire—one study using a standardized psychiatric interview, one a medical examination and interview, and one a psychosociological interview. These methods and find-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 472.

ings were compared briefly with those of Terman and others (148) and with recent research by Kelly (74).

Burgess and Cottrell (28) had as an underlying concern the problem of mate selection. They correlated various factors with degree of happiness as reported by couples who supplied the data. Terman, with the assistance of Bittenwieser, Ferguson, Johnson, and Wilson (148), used an anonymous questionnaire for the gathering of data from 792 couples. There are also Hollingworth's critical review (69), Terman's partial reply (146), and the brief analysis of corroborating data by Kelly (75) prepared at Terman's request. Kelly's research (74, 75), unlike the other major studies of the correlates of marital happiness, which have been cross-sectional in nature, is a longitudinal study still in progress; most of his three hundred couples were interviewed and were administered tests before marriage. The success of the marriages is being evaluated by means of an annual follow-up blank. Numerous problems involving some phase of marital adjustment and chiefly concerned with adults have been considered (34, 35, 53, 78, 79, 104, 116, 119, 137, 150).

Marital selection and related factors—In addition to the investigations mentioned above, Burks and Steggerda (30), using a campus balloting, reported a study of potential marital selection in Negro college students. McKain and Anderson (92), in a study of assortative mating, concluded that during depressions a greater similarity of age exists than in prosperous years. Popenoe (113), through his adult students, collected data on 738 elopements and discussed the motives as reported. Popenoe (114) also reported on the success of civil and religious marriages. C. Kirkpatrick (77) discussed the community of interest and the measurement of marriage adjustment.

Family Background and Child Adjustment

Two facts, applicable to all mental hygiene research, are outstanding in this area; one is the large quantity of material that has been published, the other is the difficulty in applying the accepted safeguards of research. H. Mowrer (99) discussed the study of marital adjustment as a background for research in child development. Baruch (16, 17) investigated certain types of "tension" in marital relationships of parents as coexistent with child adjustment. Her subjects were thirty-three nursery school children and their parents. The children were observed in the preschool. Data on tensions present in the interparental relationships and on background items in the lives of the parents were obtained through a "free interview of the psychiatric social work type" (17:202). Significantly related to child adjustment were tensions over sex, ascendance-submission, lack of consideration, lack of cooperation on the upbringing of the child, extra-marital relations, tension over health, inability to talk over differences to mutually acceptable solutions, tension over insufficient expression of affection,

tension over friends, work, and relatives. Hattwick (64) calculated tetrachoric intercorrelations between thirty-five forms of behavior in the nursery school and fifteen home and parental influences rated by home visitors. He concluded that an abundance of attention in the home contributes to infantile and withdrawing behavior; that emotional tension in the home is associated with lack of adjustment in the child; and that sharing responsibilities and play experiences in the home contributes to self-reliance and security on the part of the child.

Grant (60) sought to determine the relationship between five characteristics of parental behavior and eleven selected patterns of child behavior; and second, to determine the effect of certain changes which were actually made in the home environment upon selected patterns of child behavior. Subjects were thirty-three children of preschool age and their families. Bühler (27) had trained workers observe children in eight families for a total of fifteen hours in each family. Activities and contacts initiated by the child and by the adult were recorded and classified immediately after the visit. The author emphasized her contribution to method. Ayer and Bernreuter (12) studied the type of discipline in the home and the personality characteristics of forty nursery school children as rated on the Merrill-Palmer scale. Attractiveness of personality, tendency to face reality, and independence of adult attention and affection were facilitated when children were allowed considerable freedom.

Symonds (142) presented chapters on a variety of parent-child relationships. One of his studies dealt with pairs of children in which one child was "accepted" and the other "rejected" by its parents. A second study dealt with twenty-nine pairs of records in which one child had a "dominant" parent and the other a "submissive" parent. Symonds (143, 144) had previously discussed such relationships, pointing out that the rejected child is likely to show aggressive traits and be antagonistic toward others. Burgum (29) surveyed case studies of "rejected" children and attempted to find compensatory behavior which was constructive. Witmer and colleagues (164) made further studies of maternal acceptance and rejection.

Duvall (46) devised a method for measuring parent-child social distance. Champney (33) developed parental-rating scales for studying home environment. Block (25) reported conflicts of adolescents with their mothers; and Stagner (138) reported on the role of parents in the development of emotional instability. Intra-family relationships were reported for traits (149), attitudes (51, 105, 122), and for personality test performance (42). Hardy (63) studied a wide variety of aspects of home environment in relation to behavior at the elementary-school age. Jameson (72) and McKinney (93) related college student personality traits to home environments. Other relations between family background and personality were reported by Carpenter and Eisenberg (32) and by Henry and Emme (68). Other factors were included in studies by Anderson (11) and by Beach and Beach (21).

Family economic status and college student personality traits were studied by Mintzer and Sargent (95). Wile and Davis (161) noted behavior differentials for superior and dull children with special reference to socio-economic status. Nevill (103) studied home difficulties of brilliant children. Town (152) reported on the concentration of feeble-mindedness in families. Familial incidence of stammering was reported by Wepman (159), and stuttering was related to ordinal position in the family by Rotter (127).

Longitudinal studies of the family influences on child behavior and development being conducted at the University of California, Berkeley, have been reported in part by Macfarlane (89, 90), and Bayley and Jones (19). Updegraff (154) and Witmer (163) have each summarized several recent studies on the influence of parental attitudes upon child behavior. Wallenstein (156) investigated the character and personality of children from broken homes. A number of publications including theoretical and case study material as well as reports of experimental procedures dealt with the needs or drives of children; among these the most extensive is the work of D. Levy on primary affect hunger (83), sibling rivalry (84, 85), thumb or finger sucking (86), and maternal over-protection (82). The problem of meeting the needs of children in family life was also discussed by Frank (54, 55, 56). Other studies also involved siblings, including twinning as a factor influencing personality (91, 109, 117). A number of studies were concerned with children's attitudes and the child's point of view. Stogdill (140) reviewed experiments on children's attitudes toward their parents published between 1894 and 1936. Some contemporary studies also reported on this subject (70, 97, 133, 134). Problems in the treatment of mothers have been reported in three studies from Smith College School for Social Work (61, 88, 124). Other studies covering a wide variety of problems related to parents and children are reported in abstract (131).

Home Background and Adjustment in School

A number of studies have reported a wide variety of approaches to the mental hygiene interrelations of school and home. The age range includes all levels from nursery school through college. Slater (130) classified forty nursery school children in three groups for tempo and variety of activities. Case histories of the thirteen most "irregular" children showed that changes in the home background and environment may have accounted for irregularity in their nursery school behavior. Gottemoller (59) reported on effects observable in a kindergarten; Hattwick and Stowell (65) studied parental overattentiveness and its effect on elementary-school work. Preston (118:175) reported that parents of reading failures "were not good teachers and apparently did more damage than good by their efforts." Crawford and Carmichael (41) compared the scores on the Stanford achievement test

from a school system and found no significant differences between achievement in the three years before and the three years after the school abolished home study.

Many studies have shown a positive relationship between low socio-economic status and maladjustment, but Pisula (110) reported that children from more comfortable homes showed more maladjustment in school. Springer (135) found that children from middle-class homes showed greater emotional stability on the Brown personality inventory than children from a lower social status. A further study (136) employing the Haggerty-Olsen-Wickman scale showed a similar tendency. Collins and Douglass (38) studied the relation of socio-economic status to junior high-school success. Kirkendall (76) found that changes in certain home conditions did not result in changes in high-school adjustment—at least within a year.

Curtis and Nemzek (43) undertook to answer the question, What is the relation of unsettled or broken home conditions to the academic success of high-school pupils? Six conditions were considered as constituting broken homes: loss of father by death, loss of father by divorce or separation, unemployment of father, loss of mother by death, loss of mother by divorce or separation, or employment of mother outside the home. Fifty pupils were located for each of these six broken home conditions. They were paired with pupils from normal homes on the bases of intelligence, chronological age, grade in school, sex, and nationality. An honor-point average based upon teachers' marks was computed for each of the 600 pupils and used as the measure of academic success. In seven comparisons the data indicated that the school achievement of pupils from broken homes was inferior to that of pupils from normal homes. Risen (123) reported that lack of one or both parents affected the child's intelligence quotient unfavorably, increased the amount of overageness, increased the number of failures in school subjects, and increased his chances of becoming a problem case for the school counselor.

Foster Homes

A general introduction to the broad problem of rehabilitating children has been presented with case illustrations by Baylor and Monochesi (20) in the form of a text in child placement. Brooks and Brooks (26), themselves adoptive parents, have given a comprehensive treatment of the social, psychological, and legal aspects of adopting children. M. Kirkpatrick (80) discussed some psychological factors in adoption. The Children's Bureau (153) issued in mimeographed form a report on child welfare legislation. Milchrist (94) published a historical review of the development of state legislation in Illinois for all aspects of child welfare together with an expository statement of contemporary administration.

Illegitimacy—From a study of sixty adopted problem children Epstein and Witmer (47) reported some suggestions for Illinois adoption pro-

cedures. A monograph by Puttee and Colby (120) discussed the illegitimate child in Illinois. Hanna (62), in a partial report of an extensive study of adoption records in nine states, found that about 60 percent of the children studied were born out of wedlock and that among children adopted by persons other than relatives nearly three-fourths were of illegitimate birth. Nottingham (106) made a direct investigation of the mental ability, school achievement, personality make-up, vocational interests, attitudes, and social, economic and religious background of forty unmarried mothers. In no instance did her measures reveal findings peculiar to this group. Rome (126) sought data that would assist in predicting whether unmarried Jewish mothers would keep their children after the first three years of institutional care or give them up. She concluded that "when four or more of the so-called favorable traits are present in the case the child is very likely to be taken home, while when three or fewer are present some other disposition of him is very apt to be made" (126:201). The problems of unmarried mothers are reported in two other studies (37, 132). Shea (129) reported briefly from a study of the records of the State Board of Control of Minnesota covering a ten year period; the background of adopted children was found to be superior to that of illegitimate children not adopted. Tarachow (145) discussed the disclosure of foster-parentage to illegitimate boys. The most characteristic behavior pattern resulting from the disclosure was desertion of the home.

Adjustment in foster homes—A number of studies emphasized different aspects of the problems of adjustment in foster homes: the problem of frequent replacement by Clothier (36); a comparative analysis of three groups of dependent boys living under widely different conditions by Murphy (101); and a discussion by Cowan (39) of emotional factors besetting the lives of foster children. Cowan and Stout (40) reported a comparative study of the adjustment made by foster children after complete and partial breaks in continuity of home environment. There appeared a reliable difference in favor of partial breaks. Baxter (18) reported in some detail an analysis and interpretation of six cases.

Family Care

There appears to be a growing interest in utilizing the mental hygiene potentialities of family care of mental patients (48, 112, 121). The cost to the state is reported by Pollock (112) to be about half that of institutional care. Family care of the dull and feeble-minded has been discussed by Hubbell (71), and by Doll and Longwell (45). Using the Vineland social maturity scale on over 100 feeble-minded adult patients and 25 foster mothers Doll and Longwell reported that the patients were found leading well-adjusted, happy, and somewhat useful lives under the supervision of foster parents who on the social maturity scale were slightly in advance of the average adult. A program designed to provide an hour of daily instruction at home for physically handicapped children was set up through the

cooperation of a large number of persons and of agencies in Scranton, Pennsylvania, under the supervision of Oettinger (107).

Home Factors and Delinquency

New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment is a title aptly chosen for a book by Healy and Bronner (67). Freed from the usual pressures of rendering clinical services these investigators undertook a critical and carefully planned study of 153 delinquents and their families and of 145 controls paired against the delinquents. In general this research reaches the conclusion that delinquency is a form of rational and expected behavior; that it is caused by many factors; that among the factors is the thwarting of normal urges in the individual; that the thwarting or frustration tends to make the individual seek other than socially acceptable behavior for his satisfactions; that in the whole process of meeting the needs of the child the families of delinquents have made a very small contribution if they have not actually interfered with the child's normal, healthy development. The family was found to be chiefly involved in the formation of the delinquent child's antisocial ideation.

Shaw, with the assistance of others (128), presented the life histories of five delinquent brothers. Through a questionnaire administered to 50 adult repeating criminals and to 50 adult first offenders, Tolman (151) reported statistically significant differences in attitudes toward authority and the parents. Gillin (57) studied the backgrounds of 172 prisoners and their brothers. Other studies discussed the implications of family experiences in suicidal tendencies in children (24) and truancy (108).

Ordinal position—Birth order has been studied in relation to behavior disorders of young children (162), incidence of stuttering (127), and various other aspects of personality and behavior (66, 125, 141). Krout (81) defined thirteen ordinal positions for each sex for use in his study of the relation of intra-familial response patterns and dominance-attachment-submission behavior toward persons outside the family.

Psychosis and family influences—Barry and Bousfield (15) reported their investigation of the incidence of orphanhood among 1,500 psychotic patients. They found a higher incidence of orphanhood among patients developing a psychosis prior to age twenty-five, but regarded their findings as tentative due to the small number of cases. Despert (44) discussed the role of the mother, particularly the "over-aggressive" mother, in relation to schizophrenia in children. Myers and Witmer (102) investigated the social and psychological adjustment of 45 dementia præcox patients five years after their commitment. The patients were under twenty years of age when committed. The incidence of adverse home situations and personal maladjustment before the onset of the psychosis was high. Two other studies reported the mental health status of children whose mothers were psychotic (49) and whose parents were psychotic or criminal (22).

CHAPTER III

Adjustment in the School and College Situation¹

ETHEL KAWIN, with the assistance of HELEN L. KOCH,
DOROTHY T. HAYES, and BERNICE NEUGARTEN²

DURING THE PERIOD covered by this REVIEW the literature pertaining to mental hygiene and adjustment in schools has multiplied at an extraordinarily rapid rate. The bibliography gathered on this topic included more than six hundred titles. Only a small part of this extensive literature, however, can be properly classified as research. Most publications dealing with mental hygiene and the school are still in the expository, descriptive stage in which *opinions* of experienced specialists are formulated and expressed for the guidance, largely, of teachers and parents. After elimination of publications of this type it was still impossible to present a comprehensive review of the research studies published during this period. Only a sampling, illustrative of types of studies in certain areas, was included. The research has been classified in three major areas relative to:

1. Providing those types of school environment and program (curriculum, methods of guidance and instruction, and experiences) which are conducive to mental health and good adjustment.
2. Providing for the study and understanding of each individual's needs, abilities, and interests, and the adaptation of the general school program to meet them. Separate recognition is given to studies at the college level.
3. Providing well-adjusted teachers who understand children and have a knowledge of mental hygiene as a basis for helping children become well-adjusted personalities.

A. Providing School Environments Conducive To Mental Health

Evaluating General School Programs³

Peterson (232) found that children of the nursery school group were more out-going and at ease and more able to take care of themselves in social situations than were those of the non-nursery school control groups. Results similar to these were found by Hattwick (193) and other investigators.

Several investigators have gone beyond the traditional measurement of academic skills in seeking to evaluate different types of school programs. Wrightstone (257) has attempted to appraise the intangibles achieved by progressive schools as compared with the more traditional types of

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 478.

² Helen L. Koch reviewed material in the nursery school field; Dorothy T. Hayes in the college field; and Bernice Neugarten in the teacher-training field.

³ The numerous studies attempting to measure the effects of various kinds of school experience upon intelligence and scholastic achievement have not been included unless personality and behavior adjustments were also studied.

schools which he used as controls. His findings, based upon extensive studies of six metropolitan areas, suggested that pupils of activity schools have better emotional, personal, and social adjustments than pupils of the more traditional schools. Loftus (206), attacking a similar problem and using technics of controlled observation, reported that activity schools quite consistently surpassed traditional schools in both qualitative and quantitative aspects of pupil behavior involving initiative and cooperation. Activity schools also had a slight advantage in tests covering such dynamic factors as attitudes, social and civic beliefs, and personal and social adjustment. In a reorganization of a public elementary school Dimmick (177) found that greatly improved adjustments of children resulted from modifying the school from a standard type of platoon school to a remedial group plan of organization. The Regents' Inquiry of New York State (173), attempting to appraise both process and product in a selected sampling of programs from fifty school systems, included a survey of character and personality traits of pupils.

An eight-year cooperative investigation, involving thirty secondary schools and a group of colleges, is being carried on for the Progressive Education Association by Tyler and a group of associates (249, 250).

Evaluating Specific Parts of School Programs

Page (229) tried to raise the degree of "ascendance" in retiring children by putting them in social situations in which certain skills that they had acquired gave them unmistakable status. Keister (201) found that children who showed undesirable reactions to failure could be made to develop poise and persistence when faced with difficulty. The method used involved gradual exposure to increasingly difficult situations and encouragement for independent action. Holmes (196) found that similar methods were successful in gradually overcoming fears of children.

Borgeson (170) studied the relative motivating effects of various types of technics used during the nursery school lunch period. The effects of different types of verbal expression on a child's willingness to perform tasks and his success with the tasks was studied by Johnson (198). Among the types studied are the following: positive versus negative, command versus choice, encouraging versus discouraging, hurried versus unhurried, simple versus verbose, and the specific versus the general. Barker and others (167) attempted to find out about the effects of frustration in a specific activity upon the child's general constructiveness (such as in drawing or in play) and found that the level of constructiveness was lowered.

At the kindergarten level is Wolf's research (255) on the effect of praise and competition on the motivation and persisting behavior of five-year-olds. She found that persisting behavior in children appears to be the result not of any single motive or need but rather of a number of such needs.

Jones (199) experimented with three different methods of character and citizenship training among 300 boys and girls in the 7th and 8th grades of public schools, with classes to whom no training was given serving as controls. His conclusions were that demonstrable improvement in character and citizenship can be made through planned instruction in school. Zapf (259) studied the effect of carefully designed science teaching on superstition and rigid types of thinking that make for difficulty in adjustment. Ojemann's (225) and Musgrove's (217) studies concerned with the significance of a "dynamic" conception of knowledge indicate that some insight into the "changing probability" conception of knowledge may assist high-school students in effecting adjustments in certain individual and social problems.

B. The Study of Individuals in School Situations

The rapid increase of research concerning the characteristics of children and youth in schools is an encouraging evidence of the growth of mental hygiene in education, and it is with genuine regret that many valuable and interesting studies have had to be omitted.

In a project directed by Lowrey (207) a complete child guidance unit operated, probably for the first time, in the classrooms of the kindergarten and first grade. In a two-year study of 277 children at the time of their entrance to a public school, the conclusion was reached that approximately 40 percent of the children showed need for study beyond what the classroom teacher herself could provide, and that 10 to 15 percent were in need of active psychiatric and social therapy beyond the confines of the classroom. Kindergarten training was found to be a marked aid in adjustment and learning in the first grade. The conclusions reached in another study (180) of the needs of first- and second-grade pupils indicated that approximately 40 percent of the children would be significantly benefited by child guidance treatment.

Emotional and Social Development

In schools above the nursery level there is a growing recognition of the importance of emotional development, but systematic research is just beginning to appear. Blatz, Chant, and Salter (169) reported that their study of public school children agreed with studies of infants and preschool children in finding that the incidence of emotional behavior tends to decrease as children increase in chronological and mental maturity and learn more adequate and socially acceptable forms of behavior. Implications of this and other studies are that the school should provide guidance to help the child meet his problems in ever-increasingly adequate manner rather than merely emphasizing the repression of violent emotional behavior.

Characteristics of children recognized as social leaders by their school-mates were studied by Hardy (191) and others (208, 238).

Factors Contributing to Maladjustment and Failure

Olson and Hughes (227) have formulated a hypothesis which regards achievement and adjustment as a function of the *organism as a whole*, with academic or behavior maladjustment occurring as the result of "split growth." Studies of grade norms and age-grade status have indicated the urgent need for a reconsideration of the present norms of school grades. Studies by Main and Horn (213) showed that present standards require more than half of the pupils of average IQ to spend an extra six months in completing the work of the first six grades, thus introducing failure and maladjustment. Throughout the literature the relationship of maladjustment and school failure is obvious. The extent to which maladjustment causes nonpromotion and the extent to which grade repetition causes maladjustment remain complex and controversial issues. The problem of failure was discussed in a bulletin by the New Jersey Principals' Association (222), which included a bibliography of studies published prior to 1936. The tendency to advocate 100 percent promotions regardless of conditions, which became very marked about 1935, has been somewhat tempered by a tendency to examine critically and analytically the whole problem of grade organization with promotions at stated regular intervals of time. Hooper (197) questioned whether it is not the school rather than the child which "fails." Heaton (194) also, in attempting to isolate the causes of failure in about six hundred college students, raised the question "whether the college is not guilty of a great crime toward those students whom it accepts for a year or two and then turns away as failures and without guidance for the future." Some investigators have found failure related to the socio-economic status of the home (178, 209).

The present viewpoint of forward-looking educators (173, 174, 187, 213) may be summarized as follows:

1. Grade repetition should be gradually discontinued in favor of a program of differential and remedial instruction.
2. Grade norms should be adjusted better to meet the levels of ability of average pupils.
3. Rigid grade divisions should be modified; an ungraded "primary" might be advantageously substituted for the kindergarten and first three grades.
4. In some special cases it may be wise to ask a pupil to repeat the work of a grade because of excessive absences, general social and physical immaturity, and failure to make progress. In each case the decision should be made on the basis of all the available data bearing on it, not on the basis of a single set of standards of achievement.
5. "As far as achievement is concerned, the crucial issue appears to be not whether the slow learning pupil is passed or failed, but how adequately his needs are met wherever he is placed" (174).
6. Pupils in the lowest half of high-school classes should be guided away from college-preparatory subjects into courses where success and profit to them are more likely (187).

*Special disabilities*⁴—Research to ascertain the effects of special disabilities upon personality and behavior has been much needed. Gates (188) found that among one hundred cases of reading disability, only eight gave evidence of compensatory reactions of a constructive type. One of the first publications to deal with the relation between reading difficulties and character development was the book by Monroe and others (215). Preston (235) presented findings on maladjustments arising from inability to learn to read.

Adjustment of accelerated pupils—One report (218) analyzed the research and lack of research on this problem and proposed further studies. Keys (202), in a study of underage students in both high school and college, concluded that acceleration, up to two years at least, makes for better adjustments socially as well as intellectually. Engle (182) and Wilkins (253) reported findings in agreement with these, suggesting that the dangers of acceleration to personal and social adjustment may have been somewhat overestimated.

Other factors—Motivation and interest in regard to school were studied by Harkavy (192), Tenenbaum (246), Rothney (242), Kirkendall (203), Eells (179), and Williamson (254). F. Brown (172) did not find the "neurotic" child lagging behind, contrary to findings of earlier studies. Kawin (200) attempted to learn the predictive values of C. A., M. A., IQ, and scores on a first-grade readiness test, for successful school adjustment at the end of the second and third grades. Relationships to social and emotional adjustment of pupils as rated by teachers were all low. The effects of certain factors in the home environment on the child's adjustments in school were treated in Chapter II.

Adjustment Problems in the College

Although the research in this area is comparatively recent and the measurement of the procedures have not in all cases been adequately worked out, attention should be directed to Heaton's study (194) of the failing student, previously referred to, and to the McNeely analysis (211) of the reasons for college student mortality. Woods and Chase (256) ascribed the following conditions for students "not getting on" in college: immaturity, overcompliance, social inadequacy, nonconformity and recklessness, disinterest in study, worry and anxiety, and temporary perturbation. Intimations are that colleges should not leave the development of personality and character to the home, church, and other organizations, but should meet the challenge presented to them. Lees (205) reported two-thirds of the university students studied felt they needed advice on personal problems and had no one to whom to go. Fenlason and Hertz (183), in a study of over 2,000 college students, indicated that feelings of inferiority engendered by such factors as low family incomes and life in urban centers

⁴ A subsequent issue of the Review will deal with special education.

were more prevalent among college students than was ordinarily supposed. Darley (175) found that maladjustment among college students depressed scholastic achievement below the level to be expected from ability; Emme's study (181) of about 500 freshmen in a liberal arts college indicated that they had adjustment problems of such a nature that progress in college courses was impossible until something was done about them. Miller (214) investigated the thesis that the exceptionally able college student is likely to be socially maladjusted and found the contrary. Young (258) found that lack of social adjustment had no appreciable relationship to scholarship in college students. McKinney (210) reported on various factors influencing adjustment.

Colleges and universities are giving increased attention to the mental health of their students. Over 90 percent of 479 four-year degree-granting collegiate institutions, according to Raphael, Gordon, and Dawson (237), recognized a need for attention to the mental hygiene of college students. Palmer (230) presented a plan for the detection and management of personality difficulties of university students. Rice (239) reported that ratings on a five-point scale by four individuals could reveal a tendency toward a psychosis in the character of a normal student. She urged an early diagnosis of temperament defects in college students. Courses in mental hygiene were found by Raphael, Gordon, and Dawson (237) at about two-fifths of the 479 institutions of higher learning studied. Diehl and Shephard (176) and Haggerty and Brumbaugh (190) reported that half of the colleges and universities studied were providing some type of counsel in problems of mental hygiene. Raphael (236) reported that four-fifths of a student group who had been "therapeutically contacted" by the mental hygiene unit could be "conservatively estimated to have shown marked improvement." It was suggested that a comprehensive personnel or adviser division would be effective to reach the entire student body, the psychiatric unit being available for special consultation service and cases needing therapeutic treatment. Fleming (184) reported that over half the students treated by the psychiatric clinic of a large university did satisfactory work the year following. These studies are only a few of the many that are appearing in this area.

C. Providing Well-Adjusted Teachers

Some educators believe that to raise the general level of personality adjustment in the teaching profession we must depend less upon altering personalities of teachers already in service than upon the careful selection of candidates who possess, at the outset, desirable personal and social traits. Whether or not this is true, the literature of the past few years points unmistakably toward a growing concern over the personality adjustments and mental hygiene of prospective teachers, in regard both to initial selection and pre-service training of candidates. The Schellhammer (244) and

Madden (212) studies serve as typical examples. Further studies were reported in the *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH* for June 1940.

Odenweller (224) came to the conclusion that personality has a closer relationship to the quality of teaching than has any other trait he studied, and investigations such as Barr's (168) lend support to that point of view. Greene and Staton (189) concluded that teaching aptitude is unrelated to traits of emotionality and adjustment as measured by standardized tests. Olson and Wilkinson (228) concluded that the able student teacher is one who employs a high percent of constructive verbalism in controlling pupil behavior; Rostker (241) found that the teacher's knowledge of mental hygiene and her ability to diagnose and remedy pupil maladjustment bear a significantly high relation to teaching ability; while LaRue (204) in investigating the emotional differences between superior and inferior teachers found the superior teacher to rank higher on creativeness, emotional stability, tender emotion, amusement, and curiosity.

Ojemann and Wilkinson (226), from the results of a well-controlled study, inferred that success in teaching is intimately tied up with the teacher's knowledge of the individual pupil's background, desires, and needs. In analyzing case records for a group of kindergarten children, Nichols, Worthington, and Witmer (223) concluded that an understanding, sympathetic kindergarten teacher benefits the adjustment of the great majority of her pupils and helps to offset some of the maladjustments that grow out of children's home situations. The Anderson studies (166), indicating that dominative behavior in teachers begets dominative behavior in children, and that integrative behavior begets integrative behavior, carry important implications for the assessment of successful teaching. It is difficult to measure the effects of teacher personality entirely apart from the methods teachers use. Jones (199), for example, found, in his study of three different methods of teaching, that the effectiveness of the methods used varied from teacher to teacher.

Teachers' Knowledge of Mental Hygiene

Teachers' opinions continue to be at variance with the opinions of mental hygienists concerning the relative seriousness of behavior problems. In Thompson's study (247) teachers, apprentice teachers, parents, and children were found to evaluate problem behavior in terms of its social consequences, whereas child psychologists tend to evaluate it in terms of its effect upon individual personality development. Hobson (195) tested over 1,600 teachers and found that a high enough percent lacked knowledge of mental hygiene to justify the conclusion that some method should be used to require teachers to take some up-to-date training in the subject. Anderson (165) devised an instrument to test teachers' knowledge of mental hygiene. In one study (252) eighty-five in-service teachers were asked to rate the value of the course on personality maladjustment and mental hygiene in

which they were enrolled. Sixty-eight percent ranked it first among all their college courses from the standpoint of its personal value to them; 44 percent ranked it first from the point of view of its professional value.

Mental hygiene texts for teachers—Rivlin's text (240) is a simple exposition which serves to introduce teachers to this field; a more technical and encyclopedic volume is the one by Thorpe (248). Ryan (243) surveyed present mental health practices in schools throughout the United States. Prescott (234) dealt with the responsibility of the school in developing emotional and social maturity in children. While the *Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher* (219) contained no specific section devoted to mental health or adjustment, it presented much relevant material. Updegraff and others (251) and also J. Foster and Mattson (186) have written texts on practices in preschool education which, like a number of other general books in the nursery school field, are really texts in mental hygiene because of their emphasis on social and emotional development.

In closing, attention may be called to three publications (220, 221, 245) which summarized and interpreted the contributions and trends of existing research in areas closely related to adjustment in the school situation. Suggestions for needed further research may also be found in these references.

CHAPTER IV

Adjustment in the Community¹

RALPH H. OJEMANN

A. Mental Hygiene Effects of Leisure-Time Activities

THERE ARE MANY STUDIES of the activities engaged in by children and by adults. In this review, however, we are concerned only with the effect of activities on adjustment. Studies on this point are not numerous. Davis (267) worked on the hypothesis that play must stress effort rather than an ability to score if it is to be a constructive factor in mental health. He worked with boys ranging in age from ten to fourteen. In setting up games, players for each side were selected by lot and no scores were kept. At the end of the game the play, players, and social value of the game were discussed. The winner selected was the boy who put the most into the game. The same technic was used with the mentally ill. Clements (264) and others reported that clubs and certain types of supervised play have resulted in a decrease of juvenile delinquency.

Several progress reports relative to the effectiveness of group play as a therapeutic procedure have appeared. Durkin (269) gave an account of the use of Levy's method as applied to a group of preschool children. The results were favorable. Solomon (272) described the use of play for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes in child patients. Conn (266) described the method of play interview as a means of studying children's reactions. Altaraz (260) described how play may serve to redirect energies that are functioning in essentially a disintegrating way into creative and satisfying channels. Claparede's criticism (263) of Buytendijk's theory of play and Wälder's exposition (274) of a psychoanalytical theory of play are suggestive as to the possible values that may be derived from leisure-time activities. Claparede suggested that play has value as an experimental activity in adaptation and may have a compensatory value, notably in feelings of inferiority and suppressed complexes.

Camping—During the past ten years there has been a growing realization of the possibility of camping as a factor in the development of optimum adjustment. Amsden (261) described a camp program designed to achieve a mental hygiene value, and reported that in the camp it became apparent that many of the problem cases were really cases for whom few or no outlets for challenging constructive activities were available. None of the fifty were reported as having delinquent records during the year following the camp experience. Tuckman (273) reported a similar experience. Meyering's analysis (271) of behavior problems revealed the many opportunities for constructive redirection of the energies of youth through camp-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 482.

ing experience. A discussion of the method used in dealing with behavior problems under camp conditions and the results obtained was reported by Dimock and Hendry (268).

B. Effect of Economic Depression and Unemployment

The effect of a given influence must be expressed both in terms of the type of influence and the kind of person involved. If the individual is already beset with emotional conflicts the addition of such a powerful factor as unemployment may be more than the last straw that is needed for the breakdown. On the other hand, for an individual who possesses a reserve power the addition of the problem of unemployment, while distressing, may not bring about a severe personality disorganization. Again, an individual whose ambitions are projected far into the future will be more disturbed by the threat of unemployment than a person whose plans are not definite. Lewis (289), for example, studied a group of fifty-two men afflicted with mild chronic disorders associated with long periods of unemployment. Various combinations of anxiety, irritability, and resentment appeared in the clinical picture. Unemployment, however, was not the only factor operating; the family history was usually that of poverty, and reports of childhood neurotic traits were rather common. On the other hand, Israeli (286) reported a study of Scottish and Lancashire unemployed groups that were under considerable mental stress from "unemployment shock," but the effects of unemployment were not obvious beyond this. The subjects in Israeli's study evidenced sufficient reserve power to adjust to the problem of unemployment without developing into neurotic patients. Rundquist and Sletto (296) found greater discontent and poorer general adjustment among the unemployed, but between employed and unemployed younger men residing at home and attending educational classes few differences were found. This "at home" group seemed to possess a buffer in their partial dependence on parental support. When those unemployed who were not living at home or whose environmental setting included other unfavorable factors such as separation of parents or over-ageness were considered the differences between unemployed and employed were striking.

Landis (288) found that during the last twenty-two years the incidence of all kinds of mental disease has remained remarkably constant, with the exception of cerebro arteriosclerosis which has shown a large increase. This the author attributed to an increase in the total population in the upper age group. He concluded that depression is not a cause of mental disorder although it has been a source of considerable mental stress. Mowrer (293) studied the changes in insanity and suicide rates in Chicago from 1929 to 1935. His data indicated that depression tends to produce a decrease in insanity and an increase in suicide rates. The decrease in insanity during the depression could be accounted for by those types developing from

personality disorganization, such as alcoholism. There may, however, simply be a lag between economic depression and certain types of insanity.

Zawadzki and Lazarsfeld (298), in their analysis of fifty-seven biographies of unemployed written by the subjects themselves and collected by the Polish Institute of Social Economy, found considerable variation in attitudes. There were often feelings of superfluosity and inferiority and a development of sensitivity and irritability. Moral values tended to shift in the direction of practical necessity. Rundquist and Sletto (296) administered tests to several thousand high-school students, college students, people on relief, and other adults. A comparison of the employed and unemployed revealed that the two differ most widely with respect to their attitude toward the economic order and with respect to general adjustment. The magnitude of general maladjustment was greater among men, among the lower occupational strata, among the older men, and among the less well educated. The employed and unemployed groups were not differentiated by feelings of inferiority or unfavorable family attitudes. In general, the differences between employed and unemployed young women were small. Elner (285) presented data from a group of unemployed salesmen between twenty-five and thirty-five years of age showing that during the initial phase a feeling of uselessness prevailed, especially in women.

Several studies reported data as to the effects of unemployment on families. Morgan (291) studied 331 relatively privileged families in 1927 and again in 1933 to determine the effect of the intervening economic depression. In spite of the fact that the incomes of the families were greatly lowered there were no obvious signs of instability. Angell (275) reported similar effects of the depression on the family. The effect varied with the integration and adaptability of the family. These findings were verified by Cavan and Ranck (282). The adjustment of individual members to such problems as thwarted ambitions, loss of prestige, and increased emotional strain were important factors.

The type of solution that an individual will adopt depends in part upon the opportunities offered by the general cultural setting. Boisen (277) obtained data over a period of sixteen years showing the rapid growth of an eccentric religious cult as a direct result of the strain produced by the economic depression. Sharing the strain increased neighborliness and lessened the feeling of isolation.

The effect of the economic depression also appeared in the development of children and youth. Unemployment produced crowded living conditions, lowered economic level, inadequate places to play and study, and these in turn made adjustment at home and at school difficult. The effect of such conditions has been summarized by Bursch (280) and by Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld (284). Meltzer (290) reported directly on children's attitudes as influenced by economic deprivation. Economic insecurity was found to be associated with emotional insecurity, but beyond a minimum level economic security did not imply emotional security, as indicated by the ap-

parently better adjustment of the children from the middle class as contrasted with children from the upper economic group. Peck and Becham (294) studied the attitude of children toward relief. Bell (276), in a comprehensive study of the attitudes of Maryland youth, reported that young people were not bitter and rebellious but rather distressingly apathetic, accepting their lot meekly. Keator (287) called attention to the importance of guiding the industrial adjustment of handicapped youth. Buck (278), in a study of two thousand university students, showed the effect of the depression in the lessening disapproval of debt and "socialistic" plans.

C. Influence of Mores and Traditions

Much space has been devoted in the writings of cultural anthropologists and sociologists to a description of the traditional patterns characterizing the behavior of various groups. It is not the purpose of this section to cite such descriptive accounts but rather to bring out the mental hygiene consequences. We are concerned with the effects on mental hygiene of community influences which are commonly grouped under the terms "customs," "traditions," "mores," and "laws."

One of the outstanding characteristics of customs is their resistance to change. The Lynds (311), in their second study of Middletown, found that conditions had changed but that thinking had not changed essentially. Symbols had not kept up with realities. The old faith rather than new ways of thought was characteristic of the mental pattern. This lag was already producing serious difficulties in adjustment. Allport and Schanck (299) found that the attitude toward homicide in defense of self, family, and other persons in a group of students at a southern university differed considerably from attitudes among students at a northern university. Southern students tended to rank "defense of family honor" higher than "defense of national honor." Zilboorg (322) described the large variation in attitude toward suicide among primitive and civilized races. Variations in attitude may generate adjustment problems. Childers (302) reported that Negro children of the lower class studied by him were exceptionally free from restraint in discussion of sexual matters. He presented two case summaries of breakdowns as a result of these children being compelled to live in a culture demanding strict restraint.

Several studies have appeared on the effect of urban and rural areas. Speer (315) studied the oral and written wishes of city school children and rural school children, aged seven to fifteen years. Symonds (320) submitted fifteen areas of human concern to high-school boys and girls for ranking as to importance. The results show that city and country youth are closely related in their problems. Communities differ widely in their stimulating effect. Stott (317, 318, 319), in a study of the personality development of eight hundred children in Nebraska, concluded that with few exceptions city groups ranked higher in intelligence and personality measurement

than rural groups. Witty (321) noted that the standardization through radio, movies, the comic strip, etc., may counteract the development of individual and creative expressive activities. Coffey and Wellman (303) in a study of more than three hundred preschool children found that socio-economic status does not significantly affect the changes in intelligence of children attending preschool.

Community mores may influence emotional stability. Hallowell (307), for example, showed the relation of some of the characteristic fears of Indians living in Canada. Common situations that in other cultures are reacted to with a minimum of emotion produced intense effects in the tribes studied. Loomis and Davidson (310) reported that rumors and anxiety tend to prevail under conditions of uncertainty and inadequate information. Lewin and Lippitt (309), in a study of autocratic and democratic atmospheres, presented data showing how tensions are built up in autocratic groups as contrasted with democratic groups.

The conflict of cultures may play its part in the development of delinquency. Glueck (306) studied a group of 121 cases of native-born sons of American parents and 461 cases of native-born sons of foreign parents. The author concluded that the problems resulting from the different nativity of parents and children contribute to delinquency. Shaw and others (314) made a case study of five brothers, born in a maladjusted immigrant family and brought up by Chicago gangland, who all became criminals. He described the conflicts of moralities in the old-world family and the new-world family. This produced a confusion in the lives of the parents and led to their inability to impose their standards on their children. Such agencies as the church and the school fail to reach these subjects. The play groups gradually crystallized into a group essentially opposed to and in conflict with the law enforcing agencies. Sandercock (313) reported similar findings.

D. Motion Pictures

That it is possible to modify attitudes of both adults and children by means of motion pictures was illustrated by Ramseyer (328), using motion picture films dealing with soil erosion and the work of the WPA. Cooper (324) reported the reactions of 807 sixth-grade children to commercial feature pictures. He used the interview and test technic. The subjects learned to be courteous, considerate, and careful as the result of seeing features where these attitudes were stressed. There was also some evidence that subjects tended to improve their posture, dress, and health. The values derived varied with economic status, nationality, religion, and type of neighborhood. On the other hand, Cressey (325) reported only a superficial influence on attitude and behavior.

Investigators do not seem to be in complete agreement as to the effectiveness of films with "dull" and bright pupils, with varying age levels, and with both sexes. Gemelli (327) concluded that motion pictures provide an

escape from difficult situations and an avenue for vicarious satisfactions. Bruel (323) reported motion pictures may provide experiences which develop neuroses, and that these experiences are not limited to early childhood. Dale (326) has prepared a description of the American Film Institute.

E. Radio

Cantril (329) selected forty-three Boake Carter listeners at random and interviewed them on five different days following broadcasts. He concluded that in the lower socio-economic classes the commentator provided standards for those who lacked them. Persons in the upper brackets who have standards of judgment tend to listen to a commentator whose opinions resemble their own.

DeBoer (332) found that about one-third of the children lie in bed thinking over what they have heard on the radio; slightly over 40 percent of the children interviewed reported that they had dreamed "recently" about some radio program. Nearly three-fourths of the dreams recorded were of the nightmare type. The most offensive programs in this regard are those that dramatize crime and terrifying adventure. Somewhat similar results were obtained by Foster and Anderson (333). Radio programs appeared as a definite factor in about one-tenth of the cases of unpleasant dreams reported by mothers. There is some evidence that children make better adaptations to exciting programs as they grow older. DeBoer (332) presented a series of problems in this area that are important for investigation.

Technics for studying radio programs—The following studies are of value in the development of radio research. Ollry and Smith (336) reported on the reliability and validity of an index of radio-mindedness; Wiebe (341) on various rating scales that may be used to rate the popularity of songs; Sayre (337) on the measurement of attitude toward radio advertising; Lazarsfeld (334) on the correlation between different ways of measuring socio-economic status; Longstaff (335) on the use of the paid jury; Coutant (330) and Smith (338) on measuring the appeal of certain features of the program; Stanton (339) on validity of the mail questionnaire; Wagner (340) on reliability of questionnaire replies; and Curtis (331) on reliability of the reports on listening habits.

CHAPTER V

The Normal Child and Adolescent¹

M. A. WENGER

THIS REVIEW PRESENTS STUDIES which contribute to a picture of normal childhood and adolescence with respect to personality development and social adjustment. As yet few experimenters have turned their attention to the well-adjusted child. Studies of normative trends and various comparisons, however, can be found. A good many articles and books of a non-experimental nature have appeared, examples of which are afforded by the works of Goodenough (368), McCarthy (382), Wallin (405), and Sachs (389). A number of the studies presented in previous chapters bear upon the present one also.

Bibliographies and Summaries on Development

The chapter on the normal child by Symonds and Anderson (401) attempted to synthesize knowledge in this area up to 1936. Hardin, Chapman, and Hill (369) prepared an annotated bibliography of 640 books dealing with child psychology. Chadwick (359) presented the first section of a review of important findings during the last twenty years in the field of personality development. J. Anderson (345) prepared a study of summaries dealing with the development of social behavior in children. A review of studies of emotional and social development which have implications for education was prepared by H. E. Jones, Conrad, and Murphy (378). M. C. Jones and Burkes (379) surveyed the problems, method of study, and experimental findings of personality development in childhood. Dennis and Dennis (362) summarized 40 biographies on the first year of life and presented the data in tabular form. Kanner (380) prepared a review of the literature dealing with infantile sexuality. Arrington (346) prepared an extensive report of time-sampling studies of child behavior. The REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH for February 1939 presented an extensive summary of studies on normal growth and development.

Comparative Studies of Emotional and Social Adjustment

Thom and Johnston (402) followed by questionnaire 120 high-school children who were selected as being well adjusted. The results indicated that well-adjusted children tend to become well-adjusted adults. McKinney (383), in a study of differences between a group of poorly-adjusted and a group of well-adjusted college students, found that the well-adjusted group devoted more interest to things in their environment, they were more soci-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 485.

able, more athletic, and more interested in the opposite sex. They had fewer illnesses, generally had older siblings, and came from mature parents who were both living. Hardy (370) found that well-adjusted children had not only a higher incidence of childhood sicknesses but also illnesses of greater severity than the maladjusted group. According to Miller (385) the exceptionally able college student is better adjusted socially than his more typical classmate, as judged by participation in extracurriculum activities and office-holding. Hollingworth and Rust (374) contributed to the same picture. A group of adolescents who, as children, had Stanford-Binet IQ's of 135-190, were shown by the Bernreuter personality inventory to be less neurotic, more self-sufficient, and less submissive than college students in general. A number of studies which deal with the contribution of the home and family life to child adjustment were treated in Chapter II. While the discussion there was directed largely to non-normal children, it suggests conditions to be avoided in making or keeping children normal and well adjusted.

Symonds (400) added another study to the already long list claiming a relationship between extroversion and happiness. Although large groups of high-school and college students who differentiated themselves on a seven point scale of "happiness" reported similar problems and interests, those who were most concerned with affairs outside themselves were the most "happy." Durea (365) found some slight relationship between introversion and problem tendencies in school children. Data were obtained by means of the Marston and Haggerty-Olsen-Wickman scales. Some indication of the physiological correlates of social and emotional behavior is shown in the work of Brown (355) who found that children had higher skin temperatures.

The Influence of Specific Training

Since a major argument for the nursery school is its postulated ability to enhance social adjustment, studies dealing with the effect of nursery school experience should be considered. Skeels and others (394) published the results of a three-year study of orphanage children subjected to pre-school education. A carefully equated control group also was studied. In addition to an increased IQ, with greater language achievement and general information, the preschool groups showed greater social confidence and better motor development. All areas studied proved amenable to environmental influence. Horowitz and Smith (375) claimed that nursery school training tends to increase the active forms of child behavior and decrease the inactive forms in free play situations. Jersild and Fite (377) and Van Alstyne and Hattwick (404) contributed other studies concerning the favorable effect of nursery school experience on social development and later adjustment. Other studies on preschool children were reported in Chapters II and III.

Wants, Wishes, and Personal Problems

Witty and Kopel (408) investigated the dreams and wishes of a large number of elementary-school children, classifying the dreams into twenty-seven categories. Wilson (407) investigated what first-graders wish for others on the latter's birthdays. Boder and Beach (353) reported the "wants" of presumably normal adolescents. Asking what the government, parents, school, and church might do to increase their happiness, he found the greatest source of dissatisfaction to be the school. More companionship and freedom were requested from the parents, and more recreational facilities from the church. Sowers (396) found that many children, when writing essays on the ideal parent, expressed a desire for more companionship from their parents. According to Crampton and Partridge (360) who analyzed letters written to a boys' magazine, the adolescent boy correspondents lacked people in whom they could confide. Hicks and Hayes (373) studied 250 junior high-school pupils and reported on their wants and problems.

Lunger and Page (381) catalogued the worries of college freshmen as checked by themselves on a "worry inventory" of 78 items. The relationship of worrying to maladjustment and to self-ratings of superiority was studied. Zeligs (409) also studied children's worries; her subjects were 113 sixth-graders. Butterfield (356) reported on the love problems of some 1,500 adolescents, as determined by anonymous questions, checklists, personal interviews, and case records. According to Pullias (387) fear and guilt concerning masturbation still constitute a major problem for male adolescents. The majority of his informants believed that the practice was decidedly harmful in one way or another.

Interests and Attitudes

It is rather surprising in light of the steadily growing interest in social psychology of a more or less practical nature that more studies during this period have not dealt with the development of attitudes concerning the major social problems with which this country and the world are now faced. One by Meltzer (384) concerned itself with attitudes toward race. He studied the influence of family and neighborhood opinion on children's preferences for nationality and race. Zeligs (410, 411) also contributed to this problem.

Smith (395) made an interesting approach to the study of children's attitudes toward the opposite sex. The children were asked to assign each of 33 traits primarily to boys or to girls. The traits were first judged by teachers as "desirable" or "undesirable." Campbell (358) studied the development of attitudes of the opposite sex in 112 former nursery school children. Observations of behavior in recreational groups were repeated annually for three successive years. Cameron (357) observed young adolescents in the informal setting of a club house and reported on their developing social

needs and interests. Bernard (350) studied the influence of age and socioeconomic status upon neighborhood attachments and attitudes in school children. The relationship of age and sex to the development of social attitudes was reported by Rosander (388). Between 1,300 and 1,600 individuals were interviewed for each of nine age groups from childhood to adulthood.

Tryon (403) investigated evaluations of adolescent personality by adolescents. Both boys and girls at two ages, twelve and fifteen years, participated. A preliminary report of a rather massive approach to many aspects of social behavior was made by O'Rourke (386). Eight thousand committees totaling 54,000 pupils from Grades IV-VI constructed lists of traits which in their opinions caused an individual to be liked or disliked. A report on children's information and opinions has been made by Jersild (376). Freeston (366) analyzed the vocational interests of one hundred elementary-school children. The children were asked to draw pictures and make written reports about what they would like to be. Bennett (349) obtained reports of interests and activities of 3,000 adolescents. Symonds (400) compared interests and problems of adolescents in the city with those in the country. At least one observer has been curious about the reactions of youth to the changing social and economic order. Bell (348), in a study of Maryland adolescents, found them not bitter and rebellious, but rather apathetic toward present conditions.

Longitudinal Studies

Few publications presenting data and results have yet appeared from the several growth studies now under way in this country, yet this approach warrants special attention. Bayley (347) published a report on children who have been followed for approximately ten years by the first Berkeley Growth Study. Of particular interest here is the section on development of personality. Based upon a very thorough study of the adolescent period, Shuttleworth (392) prepared a graphic analysis of many aspects of adolescent behavior and development. Of particular interest to this review are those sections dealing with interests and attitudes, behavior maladjustments, occupational and sex adjustments, and activities. Blatz and his colleagues (352) published a collection of studies on the Dionne quintuplets with observations on similarities and differences in their personalities. Blatz (351) followed this report with a somewhat popularized account of the development of the five sisters.

A new and popular biography of early childhood appeared in the person of Barbara, described by her father (393). Another biographical study is that by Gesell and others (367) who reported brief summaries of the development of 84 children, some of whom were first studied in 1928. Bragman (354) revived the pseudobiography as a method in child psychology. Davis (361) reported a case of extreme social deprivation; a girl about

five years old apparently incarcerated most of her life. Her behavior is described and compared with that of other long-isolated children. A description of her development in three new environments was included. Stolz, Jones, and Chaffey (397) reported a study of one hundred boys and one hundred girls of junior high-school age who were followed over a three-year period. They found no general pattern of development typical for this age group. A wide range of attitudes and interests was manifested. Schultze and others (390) published a two-year study on the development of personality in children eight to thirteen years of age. They expound their own theory of personality.

Miscellaneous and Unique Problems

Ten years ago any review of this sort would probably have emphasized age and sex differences in behavior. Now only a few studies treat these relationships specifically. Hattwick and Sanders (372) described age differences in the behavior of nursery school children. Teachers' ratings on 555 children constitute the data. Hattwick (371) analyzed sex differences in the behavior of the same group of children plus a few additional cases. Differences were found at all ages from two to four years. Sheehy (391) extracted items from the Bernreuter and Cowan personality inventories and obtained scores for 777 children nine to sixteen years of age. The effect of age on the results was studied.

Old problems, some of which have seldom if ever been attacked except from the "arm chair," are being submitted to experimentation and controlled observations. Doms (364) studied laziness in a large number of school children. He found this form of behavior in about 16 percent of the cases studied. A lengthy discussion of causal factors was included. H. Anderson (343) studied dominant and integrative behavior. The development of self-reliance was studied by Stott (398). He believed the trait is not unitary, but has at least four independent aspects. H. Anderson and Brandt (344) investigated the effect of self-announced goals on children's behavior in number-cancellation tests. They discussed the concept of "level of aspiration." Ding (363) reported on the frequency of night terrors in 57 children. He found that they occur two to three times more often in boys than in girls, and that the age mode is about six years. White and Williams (406) found marked differences in the tendency of kindergarten children to initiate or actively seek social contacts.

CHAPTER VI

Problem Children, Delinquency, and Treatment¹

CHESTER C. BENNETT

SINCE THE LITERATURE on the delinquent and troublesome child was reviewed by J. H. Williams (556) in 1936, new light has been thrown upon the etiology of children's difficulties, and the problems of prevention have been further studied. Recent years have been marked, however, by a particularly rich and lively discussion of treatment for the unadjusted individual. The child guidance clinic has been the object of increasing study. New methods of "therapy" have been developed and their efficacy has been widely discussed. Recognizing that no single procedure will solve the problems of all children, several writers have emphasized the necessity of using selectively every resource which the community affords. Attempts have also been made to evaluate the outcomes of treatment by reviewing cases after a period of time. Growing interest in this type of "follow-up" study may indicate a trend for the future. While criteria of success and failure lack precision and finality, research along this line should prove highly significant.

Incidence of Children's Problems

The lack of any standard definition of the problem child precludes a final answer to the question of incidence. For the special group of troublesome children who become delinquents we have at least a legal definition. The U. S. Children's Bureau figures (550) permit the conclusion that well over 100,000 children are added to the delinquents of the nation each year. The Massachusetts Child Council (522) found delinquents appearing in court during 1937 at the rate of 9.1 per thousand children aged seven to sixteen. Weirs (554) reported an average yearly rate of 8.4 per thousand children aged ten to sixteen in Michigan. Woodbury (559) calculated the cumulative incidence of delinquency for 1932, estimating that 83.5 per thousand white boys become delinquent by their sixteenth birthday. The figure for white girls was 12.2. For colored children the rates were 289.8 per thousand boys; 63.3 per thousand girls. Reviewing court statistics over a thirty-year period, Maller (500) found that boys outnumbered girls seven to one; 70 percent of the cases were from thirteen to sixteen years of age. These figures mean that about 1 percent of school-age children become delinquent in the legal sense each year, and upwards of 10 percent become delinquent at some time before reaching maturity.

In an attempt to correct for the fact that only a fraction of children's misbehavior is brought into court, Robison (528) considered children

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 480.

referred to various agencies for problem behavior in addition to those referred to the courts. She found that the court cases constituted two-thirds of the total group. Clearly, however, much misbehavior would escape these other agencies also and we have no satisfactory measure of the total misbehavior of children, much less of social and emotional maladjustment. Indefiniteness as to what constitutes "adjustment" is an obstacle to surveys. Carr (439) found 9 percent of Ann Arbor elementary children "in trouble" and Young-Masten (562) reported 10 percent of New Haven elementary children designated by teachers as "problem children." These designations were based principally upon "talking" and other overt forms of misconduct. Lowrey (493) employed a more valid approach in studying 277 kindergarten children. Social histories, medical, psychometric, and psychiatric examinations led to the conclusion that 40 percent of the children were in need of more thorough study than the teacher had facilities to make, a fourth of these being in need of "active psychiatric and social therapy."

Classification of Children's Problems

The outstanding offense which brings boys to court is stealing in its various forms, while general ungovernability and sexual misdemeanors are the more frequent charges against girls. Recent data reported by Robison (528), Maller (500), Osgood and Trapp (518), and the Children's Bureau (550) confirm earlier evidence. This technical classification throws little light on the real adjustment of delinquents, however. School reports also show a tendency to list children's overt misconduct, although the influence of Wickman's valuable study upon our thinking may be discerned. A more indicative cross-section is to be found in the records of child guidance clinics. Summarizing referrals to such clinics in California over a five-year period, Fenton and Wallace (456) found personality problems, presented by 23 percent of the cases, heading the list. Behavior problems comprised 16 percent, delinquency 15 percent, pre-delinquent activity 13 percent, mental deficiency 12 percent, difficulties with school subjects 11 percent, mental disease 3 percent, and miscellaneous problems including dependency 7 percent. Bassett (423) grouped the cases referred to an institutional clinic as home problems (31 percent), school problems (32 percent), and community problems (37 percent). Gartland (461), Knox and Shirley (488), and Loutitt (491) reported classifications also.

Writers are turning attention to specific types of behavior. There has been considerable discussion recently of "aggression." Typical is the study by Bender and Schilder (427) comprising an intensive analysis of this problem and of its significance in the child's affective experience. Fite (458), Pearson (523), and MacDonald (497) also discussed aggressive behavior. Children who run away constitute another group that has been studied with some care. O'Connor (516) compared boys who truanted from a correctional school with nontruants. Murphy (511) also examined

a group of truant boys, and Outland (519, 520), Armstrong (419), and Balser (420) reported on transient youth. Specific problems have also been considered in Yarnell's study (560) of fire setting and Langford's discussion (490) of anxiety attacks. Sherman (534) analyzed "schizophrenic-like" behavior, and Anderson and Mambar (418) dealt with post-encephalitic behavior.

Attributes of the Problem Child

Inquiry into the etiology of children's difficulties has often taken the form of examining the characteristics of the problem child, particularly those attributes which distinguish him from the general population. The hypothesis that differentiating factors actually exert a causal influence may require further verification. Studies of the incidence of problems, already cited, show that delinquency is primarily an adolescent matter, chiefly affecting boys. Figures reported by Mann and Mann (501), and by Osgood and Trapp (518) concur. The clinics, as compared with courts, see a larger share of girls and of preadolescents. Fenton and Wallace (456) reported a mean age of 11.7 for their group, 74 percent of whom were boys.

The intelligence of delinquents has been examined repeatedly, and Owen (521) summarized discussions of this topic prior to 1937. She found the average intelligence quotient of delinquents to be 82.4. Mann and Mann (501) and Charles (440) reported similar figures. Moore (509, 510) found delinquents retarded in educational achievement as well as in intelligence. Glanville (462) and Fendrick and Bond (455) noted inferior development in the language areas. Doll and Fitch (442) applied the Social Maturity Scale to institutional delinquents and reported a median social quotient of 72.5, characterizing the group as of borderline social maturity. Since the median IQ was 70, however, the question is raised whether their limited social competence was chiefly a function of mental retardation.

Probably the problem children outside the delinquent category are retarded somewhat less. Fenton and Wallace (456) reported a mean IQ of 92.5 for the clientele of California clinics. Among 12,454 children tested for New York City schools Krugman (489) found that the average IQ of those referred as problems was 97.2 while nonproblem pupils averaged 103.2. Lurie (495) and Bassett (423) found a preponderance of problem children to have less than average intelligence.

A suggestive note on the problem child is found in Young-Masten's study (562). Observations were made of pupils whom teachers reported as difficult and also of a matched control group. A larger number of annoying acts were tabulated for the problem children. Expressed in percents, however, the behavior profiles of the two groups were strikingly similar. The difficult pupils were more active than the controls and their annoying acts impressed the teachers, whereas their many acceptable acts

seemed to go unnoticed. Other attributes of the difficult child have been examined by Ackerson (413), Mathews (504), and Durea (449). Turner (549), studying hand and eye preferences, found crossed and undetermined laterality relatively frequent among emotionally unstable adolescents.

The idea of a criminal or delinquent "type" has intrigued students in the field for a long time though attempts to define it through scientifically controlled research have been generally inconclusive. Careful investigation of the personal attributes of the delinquent nevertheless yields valuable insight. Durea (445, 446, 447), employing tests devised by Pressey, found delinquents "emotionally retarded." Fauquier (452) analyzed the reactions of delinquent boys, using a free association technic, Speer (540) studied their wishes, fears, and interests, and Horsch and Davis (473, 474) used the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Ter Keurst (545) reported delinquents more than ordinarily superstitious. Michaels (506) observed a high incidence of enuresis. Bartlett and Harris (422), Selling (532), Kephart (482), and Brown (436) approached the problem in other ways. In general, these studies found the delinquent characterized by emotional instability and immaturity.

Hirsch (472) analyzed interview responses, dreams, physical appearance, and the personal history of 604 delinquents. The child's point of view and the affective significance of his experience were emphasized in this attempt to get at the dynamic factors which lead to unsocial conduct. Healy and Bronner (468) matched 105 delinquents with their nondelinquent siblings, thus in large measure equating the environment of the two groups. Mental and physical handicaps characterized the delinquents to a moderate degree. More striking was the evidence that they had lived a more turbulent life than their siblings, characterized by a difficult infancy and many school problems. They inclined to be hyperactive and restless, and severe personality deviations were frequently observed. There was "clear evidence" that 91 percent of the delinquents were emotionally disturbed and unhappy as against 13 percent of the control group. Their misconduct was interpreted as symptomatic of more or less basic emotional and social maladjustments.

The Background of Problem Children

It has often been observed that the foreign urban neighborhood, especially one characterized by economic deprivation, produces many delinquents. Causal relationships are not obvious, however, and a good deal of research points to the conclusion that it is the disintegration of culture patterns rather than foreignness *per se* which makes for difficulty. Children may adjust very well indeed in a cohesive racial group which preserves its cultural traditions. This is borne out by recent studies of Meyers and Cushing (505), MacGill (498), and Anderson (417). In a supplementary analysis of data on the one thousand delinquents, E. Glueck (463) found

that in several respects the typical foreign home offered a more propitious environment than comparable native homes. Notably, foreign fathers displayed an interest in their sons, and marital disharmony and broken homes figured less often in their experience. It appeared to be "community forces" which compelled these boys to become delinquent at an early age despite such definitely advantageous factors. Tennenbaum's study (544) of Jewish cases brought to a clinic, and discussions of Negro children by Tucker (548) and Bender (425), furnished insight into the specific problems of adjustment which particular culture groups must face.

Maller (500), Barker (421), and Stuart (542) found that neighborhood conditions have bearing upon the incidence of delinquency, and Sullenger (543) included a definitive discussion of the topic in his book. Shaw (533) added another volume to his library of autobiographical accounts of delinquent careers. This story told how the five Martin brothers learned crime from the gang; stealing carried the stamp of approval within the immediate mores. Weirs (553, 554) and Alper and Lodgen (416) reported that delinquency tends to be an urban problem but is by no means absent in rural areas.

Economic handicaps exert either a causal or an aggravating effect upon children's difficulties. The relationship is complex, however, for poverty has many correlatives. Again, intrafamily relationships influence the child's adjustment, often giving rise to emotional problems and behavior disorders. Studies on these problems were cited in earlier chapters of this REVIEW. In one respect the divergent literature on etiology is in agreement. No single circumstance accounts for all of children's difficulties. The causal factors are complex and interrelated. This fact has been recognized by many writers, notably: Reckless (526), Carlson (438), and Henry and Gross (470).

Technics of Measurement

The search for tests and instruments which will reliably identify children's problems continues. With special reference to delinquency, H. Moore (508) reviewed the literature and evaluated various tests devised since 1912. Durea (448) proposed a "delinquency index" based on the duration, frequency, and seriousness of offenses, and has reported on the validation of this and other instruments (444, 446, 447, 450). The Loofbourow-Keys Personal Index proved of value in identifying problem behavior according to Keys and Guilford (486) and Riggs and Joyal (527). Other instruments were discussed by M. Brill (433, 434, 435), H. Williams, Kephart, and Houtchens (555), Lyon (496), Thomson (546), Houtchens (475), and Mitrano (507). The Murray Thematic Aperception Test (512) promises to be a valuable diagnostic aid. Continued work with the Rorschach Psychodiagnostic Test is periodically reviewed in the *Rorschach Research Exchange*.

The Child Guidance Clinic

Turning to the problems of treatment, it is appropriate to introduce the discussion with a brief consideration of the child guidance clinic. Surveys of this movement by Witmer (557), Martens (503), and Fenton and Wallace (456) indicated that the clinic has emerged from the demonstration stage to assume an important role in community welfare. An increasing number of states and localities are supporting clinics committed to public service. Born under various auspices, we find them attached to institutions, hospitals, schools, courts and social agencies, or independently organized. It is generally recognized that the contributions of psychiatry, clinical psychology, and social case work must be coordinated. Recent growth in all these professions has been so rapid as to preclude any final delineation of their function or of the scope of clinical work in general. The most definitive manual on psychiatry specifically oriented to the child is Kanner's book (479), appearing in 1935. In 1936 Loutitt (491) published the first definitive manual on clinical psychology as distinct from psychometrics. Westburgh (552) added another valuable treatment. Modern case work has perhaps been best interpreted in monographs and periodicals, notably *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, *The Journal of Social Work Process*, and *The Family*. The American Orthopsychiatric Association, through its journal and conferences, makes a unique contribution in synthesizing the field of child guidance. The procedures which have proved applicable in particular clinics have been set forth in several statements, that of the Institute for Juvenile Research (477) being the most comprehensive. Knox and Shirley (488) and Solomon and Knox (538) reported the work of state clinics, while Gartland (461) described a clinic attached to a Chicago hospital.

Juvenile Court

Noteworthy among the recent publications are the symposium edited by Glueck and Glueck (465), Lunden's "source book" (494), the statements of Young (561) and Sullenger (543), and Cooper's treatise on adolescent prostitution (441). In the interest of arousing public concern, Harrison and Grant (467) reported the work of a New York City delinquency committee. Carr (439), Marshall and McCooley (502), and the Massachusetts Child Council (522) wrote with a similar purpose. The *Indiana Bulletin of Charities and Correction* devoted an issue to this topic in 1936 and the annual yearbook of the National Probation Association continues to discuss various aspects of the problem.

The dispositions made in various situations have been analyzed by Maller (500), Weirs (554), Alper and Lodgen (416), and the Children's Bureau (550). MacPherson (499) discussed the problems presented by the mentally defective child who appears in court. A recent departure in organization was described by J. Brill and Payne (432) in their statement on the

Brooklyn Adolescent Court established in 1935. Alper (415) presented convincing evidence that appeals in juvenile cases tend to defeat the purpose of the court. Glueck and Glueck (464) proposed the use of "prediction tables" to aid the judge in making his decisions. From follow-up data on the one thousand delinquents they calculated the probable success of various treatment measures when certain initial conditions are present. It must be noted, however, that the authors' percents of success rarely approached unity or zero.

Institutional Treatment

In 1938, according to a Children's Bureau survey (551), 22,522 children were in residence at state training schools for the socially maladjusted. An equal number were under jurisdiction and supervision of such institutions. The figures could be considerably increased by adding the clientele of local and private institutions. Evidently this type of care has offered a favorable setting for the treatment of many children's problems. The original purpose of isolating "incurables" and housing the destitute has been greatly modified as continued study permits more discriminative selection of the children whose problems can best be remedied in the controlled environment of an institution. Orphanages and schools for defectives, as well as correctional schools, may serve the problem child. Rogers (529) and others have discussed the questions involved in matching child to institution.

Kephart (484) analyzed the effect of institutionalization on delinquent boys. Fendrick (454) traced the contagious effect of institutional life upon children's language. Harris (466) used anecdotal behavior records in a boys' school and Powdermaker, Levis, and Touraine (525) discussed the use of psychotherapy with different types of girls under care. Jameson (478), through autobiographies and group discussions, enlisted the cooperation of delinquent girls in a study of their own problems. Kephart's experiment (483) in self-government also emphasized the child's participation in his own treatment.

Institutional methods have sometimes been judged through follow-up studies of "alumni." Nathan (513) found a definite relationship between recidivism and the educational programs of correctional schools, and Kephart and Ainsworth (485) produced similar evidence. Speer (539) questioned the advisability of agricultural training for delinquent boys since few satisfactory farm placements resulted. Other studies have emphasized the effect of subsequent experience upon the adjustment of children released from institutions. In Ferguson's report (457), delinquent boys paroled to foster home care received poor pay and impoverished recreation but made a better adjustment than those who returned to their own homes and the scenes of earlier difficulties. The studies of Bowler and Bloodgood (431), Skodak (536), and Sisisky (535) emphasized the value of careful

parole supervision. Rosenthal and Pinsky (530) described the extensive efforts of the Cincinnati Child Guidance Home to keep in touch with former clients over a long period.

Foster Home Treatment

The foster or boarding home is widely used as an alternative to institutional care when the child's removal from his own home becomes necessary. Rogers (529) discussed matching the child to foster home and compiled tables setting forth appropriate criteria. Baylor and Monachesi (424) offered prediction tables for estimating the probable outcomes of foster home care. Reporting on six hundred and ninety-one cases, Ford (459) found a higher incidence of delinquency among foster children than among wards of institutions for dependents. Abbott (412) made a real contribution in assembling her compendium of legal documents and published statements relative to the whole field of public child care. Further studies on foster homes were reported in Chapter II.

Treatment in Social Groups

The time-honored practice of excluding the youngster who does not get along with his fellows is giving way to a tendency to introduce such children into groups. This places new demands upon the group leader. The National Society for the Study of Group Work, organized in 1936, is an important advance in the development of recreational supervision as a profession. In one camp, Osborne (517) experimented with the use of "cruisers"—counselors freed from other responsibilities to search out and guide the individual camper who was not fitting in. An extensive club program for boys did not, according to Thrasher's study (547), materially reduce delinquency within the membership. Wollan and Gardner (558) reported that boys appearing in the Boston juvenile courts were ordered to attend a "citizenship training" club for several weeks. The group experience proved helpful in appraising the boy and in preparing him for psychiatric treatment when indicated.

Slavson (537) elaborated the method of "group therapy" introduced in his earlier writings. Lowenstein and Svendsen (492) applied this technic in a small camp for young children. Gabriel's account (460) of a club of preadolescent girls analyzed the procedures used with especial clarity. Essentially, the method places the child in a simplified social situation where both competition and cooperation are minimized and the free expression of individual personality is encouraged.

Needless to say the school plays an important role in the group treatment of children's problems. Literature on this point was presented in Chapter III. We may mention here that Tucker (548) analyzed the varied methods employed by one school in treating difficult colored children, and Martens' report (503) indicated the extent to which many school

systems provide clinical service for the unadjusted child. Marshall and McCooey (502) outlined the school's responsibility in coping with delinquency.

Psychotherapy

There is widespread recognition that the more deep-seated emotional problems of children cannot be fully understood or treated through psychometric tests and strictly verbal interviews. Nor can difficulties be remedied with uniform success through manipulating the child's environment. Clinics have been active, therefore, in developing new ways of modifying directly the child's attitudes and feelings. The term psychotherapy has been applied to these procedures. Play therapy, camping, and group work, already referred to, represent aspects of psychotherapy as now conceived. In varying degrees therapists seek to foster the child's self-insight through interpretation of his responses. The clinician becomes an important therapeutic element through serving as an adult who responds with understanding and sympathy rather than censure; with guidance rather than indulgence.

English (451) reviewed the literature on psychotherapy in 1936, with an emphasis on psychiatric contributions. Studies illustrating various technics of psychotherapy will be presented more extensively in Chapter VII. We may here cite the following applications to specific problems: Powdermaker, Levis, and Touraine (525), Langford (490), Bender and Blau (426), MacDonald (497), Albright and Gambrell (414), Anderson and Mambar (418), and Pearson (523). Seeking reasons for the failure of treatment in certain cases, Feldman (453) concluded that children who feel no need for help or who confuse therapy with punishment are apt to prove untreatable.

Outcomes of Treatment

As methods of treating children's problems become established attention must be given to their evaluation. The crucial test is the later adjustment of the children served. Glueck and Glueck (464) reported on the careers of the one thousand delinquent boys over a fifteen-year interval. During the last five years 26 percent of the group spent time in penal institutions as compared with 42 percent during the first five-year period. The authors concluded that delinquency was not greatly modified by the treatment accorded and the disappearance of delinquent tendencies seemed in large measure a function of maturation. A similar inference is suggested by the account of Shaw and others (533). Bowler and Bloodgood (431) reported a careful follow-up study of 623 boys five years or more after their discharge from the parole supervision of correctional schools. The general adjustment of these cases was considered successful in 32 percent, unsuccessful in 35 percent, and "doubtful" in 33 percent. Other studies dealing

with the later adjustment of institutionalized delinquents include those of Skodak (536), Sisisky (535), and Kephart and Ainsworth (485). Rosenthal and Pinsky (530), and Oberndorf, Orgel, and Goldman (515) followed the wards of dependency institutions.

The work of child guidance clinics is likewise being evaluated through studies of outcomes. Fenton and Wallace (456) reported on about eight hundred of the cases seen by California clinics. Follow-up information was gathered from parents, teachers, and other sources after intervals varying from one to seven years. Of the total group 24 percent were considered adjusted, 53 percent partially adjusted, 19 percent unimproved, and 4 percent had retrogressed. The percent of success was relatively high with delinquents, but problems associated with mental deficiency and mental disease proved less amenable to treatment. Other studies have been made by: Potter and Klein (524), Hubbard and Adams (476), Berk, Lane, and Tandy (429), Stein (541), Kanner (480), Kirkpatrick (487), Hill (471), Bodin (430), and Kelly (481).

Seeking to evaluate the treatment work of the Judge Baker Guidance Center, Healy and Bronner (469) examined the careers of four hundred cases after intervals of five to eight years. The percent of success was lower for delinquents than for those presenting other problems. "Abnormal personality" proved the most significant prognostic indication; favorable outcomes were reported in only 42 percent of cases so diagnosed. Confirming their study of delinquents (468), the authors concluded that our present knowledge of treatment methods offers a little effectual help for children of this type. It is appropriate to give final mention to the significant study recently announced by Cabot (437). Working with carefully matched groups of boys, many of them considered predelinquent, the plan of this experiment calls for continuous treatment of half the cases throughout a ten-year period while the remaining cases will serve as controls.

CHAPTER VII

Technics and Instruments of Mental Hygiene Diagnosis and Therapy¹

RUTH STRANG²

TECHNICS AND INSTRUMENTS should be servants of the principles and theory which they implement; they are merely intelligent ways of attaining goals. It is therefore fitting to begin with a consideration of modern concepts of mental hygiene, next to describe diagnostic methods of appraising an individual's present status, and finally to review therapeutic methods of promoting better mental health. The treatment of this area in the preceding cycle of the REVIEW appeared in the issue for December 1936.

A. Concepts and Principles of Mental Hygiene

Mental hygiene, which has already progressed from the earlier pathological emphasis on cure of mental disorders to their prevention, now seems to be moving toward the still more positive goal of enabling every individual to meet life's persistent responsibilities successfully. Thus mental hygiene in education becomes a basic way of dealing with the persons who are being educated. Recurring principles which have been emphasized in general books (581, 608, 647) and articles (614, 621, 633, 653) may be summarized in the following statements:

1. All conduct is symptomatic; it stems from certain basic needs and desires. Accordingly, for the best guidance the background of behavior must be understood.
2. One of the individual's most frequently mentioned needs is a sense of security—confidence in himself and in his relationships with other persons, especially with those in his family.
3. The continuity of personal development must be recognized. Many mental hygiene problems originate in childhood experiences, for example, in the individual's attempt to make his impulsive biologically natural behavior conform to the cultural pattern.
4. The complexity of the shifting relationship of parent and child as each of them moves through new stages of self-reorganization must be skillfully handled.
5. The role of the individual's concepts in his adjustment is receiving more emphasis than previously, especially by the semantic group, notably Korzybski (615).
6. The reduction of inner conflicts frees the individual to direct his energies toward constructive overt activity.
7. Continued pressure on an individual to achieve the impossible may precipitate pathological behavior. Therefore, children should be provided with appropriate tasks and a classroom atmosphere free from excessive pressure and undue competition, and from anxieties and fears provoked by neurotic teachers.
8. The therapeutic relationship is more important than the method or instrument. What is most useful is a "deeper understanding of human beings and a greater apprecia-

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 494.

² Acknowledgement is made to Ruth C. Smith for assistance in the bibliographical work in this chapter.

tion of the potential uses and misuses of the dynamic quality of the worker-client relationship" (614: 407).

9. No one therapy or philosophy of treatment is universally applicable to individuals or problems.

10. As no one person is adequately prepared to meet all the problems of mental therapy, cooperative effort is necessary. Cooperation among the social worker, physician, psychiatrist, psychologist, teacher, and administrator is being increasingly stressed.

11. Workers must guard against too great faith in the changeability of human nature and the potency of psychotherapy.

Child development—Deviations in behavior can be detected and understood best against a background knowledge of "normal" development. The REVIEW for February 1939 described expected trends in mental and physical development, and Chapter V of the present issue deals with normal children. Mental disorders are being recognized as a kind of development following the same laws as behavior observed in many so-called normal children. Using some of the data from the Harvard Growth Study, Gardner (605) studied the childhood physical and mental measurements of twenty-two psychotic patients. In physical development they appeared to be normal and they "were not preponderantly of any particular body type." Over half the cases fell within an IQ range of 85-110, the rest being lower than 85. These patients were frequently characterized in childhood as quiet, sensitive, very conscientious, and not aggressive.

Sociology—The role of the environment in the definition and causation of mental disorders has received emphasis during the three-year period covered by this review. The titles of several books illustrate this tendency in a striking way: *The Neurotic Personality of Our Times* by Horney (611) and *Personality and the Cultural Pattern* by Plant (632). Horney emphasized the origins of conflict in the culture and Plant laid special stress on the environment-centered case study as an instrument for understanding individual adjustment. The sociological aspect of mental hygiene was reviewed by Reckless (634) in an earlier issue of the REVIEW.

B. Diagnosis

In the process of improving an individual's mental health, diagnosis and therapy are interwoven. Every technic useful for diagnosis has potential therapeutic value. The diagnostic value of the interview, observation, questionnaire, rating scale, autobiography, diary, case study, and cumulative record has been thoroughly treated in several books (599, 651, 655, 656, 660) and recently in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH of April 1939 and December 1939; this important aspect of the problem will not, therefore, be reviewed in this chapter. We may, however, note in passing certain phases that have not been emphasized in other reviews.

Texts—The authors of several books on clinical methods have summarized in useful form the results of experiment and experience. Especially well organized and comprehensive is the volume by Rogers (639). It is significant that two of the four main sections of this book are devoted

to the use of the environment in the treatment of behavior problems. Another valuable volume dealing with clinical procedure is based upon the psychiatric social work at Smith College (659).

Tests—The use of paper-and-pencil personality tests for diagnosing maladjustment has been thoroughly treated in sources already cited. Darley (591) found that the adjustment inventory and interest and attitude scales used with 543 college students identified 37 percent of the men and 30 percent of the women noted by the counselors. Supplementary observation and analysis of individual intelligence tests are increasingly used to diagnose emotional difficulties. Bühler (579) reported that in the group of 165 children to whom the ball and field test of the Binet-Simon scale was administered 73 percent of all the "helplessly confused, involved, and formalistic solutions" came from neurotic children.

Autobiography—A wealth of biographical material collected by Wallin (657) illustrated the value as well as the limitations of this method in studying the adjustments of adults. The reports are valuable in indicating the individual's point of view even though his self-diagnosis and interpretation may be inaccurate.

Projective technics—The observation and interpretation of an individual's reaction to a standard but relatively unstructured situation has been used by clinically trained workers: (a) to study the "process of personality development" (601), thus obtaining insight into the individual's basic personality trends, and (b) in pathological cases, to ascertain appropriate methods of treatment. Among the stimuli employed are ink blots, cloud pictures, more realistic pictures, clay, paint, crayons, and toys of various kinds. Creative writing, dramatic play, music, and handwriting likewise lend themselves to a study of the active side of personality. These technics differ in the amount of freedom allowed as well as in the kind and plasticity of the materials (612). It is quite possible that there are individual differences among people that make these technics inappropriate for use with certain subjects, that is, some people will not express their personality organization through these media.

The pictures developed by Morgan and Murray were used by Masserman and Balken (624, 625) to elicit phantasies in fifty patients who had been admitted to the Psychiatric Division of the University of Chicago Clinics. A comparison of the responses to these pictures with case histories showed the connection between the individual's phantasies and his own life situation. Characteristic types of phantasy seemed to be associated with certain kinds of mental disorder. A larger number of experimental results have been obtained on the Rorschach test than on any other projective technic. The comparisons of "blind" Rorschach analyses with a clinical study of the same individual show a high degree of correspondence (609). The most prolific source of research on this technic, which in some clinical

circles is rapidly approaching the Stanford-Binet test in popularity, is the *Rorschach Exchange* (642).

Dreams and phantasy—Dreams become significant to the extent that they reveal the individual's life problems practically unveiled. Spontaneous phantasies, recollection of early experiences, and some play activities also are important in disclosing the individual's "life style." No single situation, however, tells the whole story. The individual's response to each situation must be interpreted in the light of the other information available about him. Seidler (646) and Despert (594: Part Four) have made suggestions for school applications.

C. Therapy

Increasing emphasis is being placed on individualization in therapy. It is better to select the particular method or methods appropriate to the mental disturbance being treated than to apply psychoanalysis, "treatment by persuasion," or any other single method indiscriminately to all cases. Common to all methods is the as yet undefined influence of the personality of the effective therapist. Problems of developing a less complicated and time-consuming psychotherapy are being discussed and subjected to informal experimentation. In such a relationship little time is spent in uncovering unconscious material far removed from reality and more time is spent in helping the patient to handle his immediate conflicts through acquiring skills and insight and through relieving emotional tension.

Consultation and Suggestion Therapy

There are two main avenues of adjustment: one, the changing of the individual's attitudes and habits through helping him to acquire insight into his problems and relationships; the other, through changing his environment. Psychiatrists tend to emphasize the first; social workers, the second; but neither approach is entirely separate from the other. The interview is the most widely employed method of accomplishing the first of these results. Of all types of interviews the psychoanalytic is the one involving the deepest therapy. Numerous nonresearch types of books and articles describe psychoanalytic procedure. For example, in a series of articles in the *Psychoanalytic Quarterly*, Fenichel (600) attempted to set forth the theory, problems, and procedure of psychoanalytic technic. The content is, for the most part, too technical to be useful to the lay person. Less technical is an article by Sloane (649), who described a method of procedure that is suggestive to teachers and counselors.

The limitations of psychoanalysis are being more clearly recognized. One of the few attempts to evaluate psychoanalytic treatment was reported by Hyman (613). Of fifteen patients who "suffered from profound psychiatric diseases" there were twelve failures in treatment; of twenty-eight other patients whose condition was less serious, four "experienced remark-

able cures," thirteen were "distinctly benefited by therapy," and eleven "experienced no benefit." On the basis of this study Hyman concluded that psychoanalysis is best suited to minor disorders and should be limited to patients between twenty-five and forty-five years old who have a background for grasping the importance of the procedure. Divergent points of view regarding the value of psychoanalysis for children have been presented. Lippman (619) recommended that the analysis of children be limited to those suffering from severe neurosis, while Lowrey (621) advocated "universal analysis" and "psychoanalytically oriented schools." The use of the joint interview of the social worker and the psychiatrist with the patient was recommended by Reeve (636). Almost half of the interviews with 582 patients at the Mt. Sinai Hospital, Cleveland, were of this type. That the use of both sociological and psychiatric interviews is sound is indicated by comparison of two such interviews with the same subject (635). Each interview was supplementary in character to the other.

Change of Environment as Treatment

There are two ways of changing a child's environment. One is to change the environment in which he is located; the other is to move him to a new environment. Of all the influences in the environment, the most important is probably the parents' attitude. The treatment value of changing parental attitudes, methods of child management, and physical conditions and routine in the home cannot be overemphasized. But recently the focus of a treatment program has shifted from the individual to the individual in his environment; treatment is becoming family-centered and community-centered rather than child-centered. This topic of family relationships and community influences is so important that two entire chapters in this issue are being devoted to it.

When the child's present environment cannot be changed, removal from that environment is frequently recommended as an avenue of adjustment. Rogers (640) reported that in more than half of the two hundred and ninety-two clinical cases which he analyzed, the first step in treatment was to select a new environment. Such a change tends to be recommended for the extremes of mental ability more often than for the middle group. Foster care is more often recommended for the younger children and those of higher mentality; institutional care, for the older, duller groups. A trend is indicated away from a mere change of location and toward attempts also to change the individual's attitudes and the attitudes of key persons in his environment (621).

Educational Therapy

The basic aspects of child adjustment through education are treated in Chapter III of this issue. This topic is touched on significantly in issues of the REVIEW devoted to the psychology of learning and methods of instruction, especially in such chapters as that written by Trow (654).

Arthur (571) illustrated the therapeutic values of remedial teaching, especially in cases in which the behavior difficulty is primary and the educational maladjustment is secondary. The efficacy of a series of mental hygiene group discussions was studied by Smith (650) by means of a control group experiment. The subjects were one hundred freshmen and sophomore college students who participated in an informal course in mental hygiene. The gains in attitudes and adjustment as measured by a personality inventory were, with one exception, in favor of the experimental group, though not large.

Closely allied to character education and semantics is the analysis of ideologies as a therapeutic method. Schilder (644) defined ideologies as "systems of ideas and connotations which human beings build up in order to have a better orientation for their actions." A specific illustration of a successful method of associating ideas of peace, security, and well-being with the word "calm" was briefly presented by Yates (661). Moreno (629) used a single case to illustrate the technic of building therapeutic images which enabled the subject, a musician, to play with more effective spontaneity. The most extensive work on the semantic approach to psychiatric problems has been done by Korzybski (615). He considered "mental" therapy as a form of semantic re-education in the meanings of undefined or unspeakable concepts. Faith in the efficacy of books and stories in modifying conduct is revived in two articles (578, 595). Among the mental hygiene values of writing and listening to stories are those of revealing an individual's inner drives and conflicts, overcoming resistance, and developing interests.

Group Activities as a Method of Psychotherapy

It is the opinion of many writers that group activities are an effective as well as an economical form of therapy. Bender (574) and Curran (588) published excellent descriptions of group activities with small children and adolescents in Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital. Both writers described a variety of creative, educational, and athletic activities employed for individual diagnosis and therapy; both writers also feel that these group activities offer opportunities for working out aggression, for getting relief from tensions, and for developing social skills, thus supplementing the individual interview. The real purpose of group activities is to "give each boy a better understanding of his own problems, and to produce a therapy which reveals to the child his individual difficulties and finally makes possible for him some form of social adaptation" (575, 590, 643).

Therapy through the Medium of Play

In no area of therapy has so much interest been shown during the past three years as in play or recreational therapy. Four books have been published on the subject. One book by Davis and Dunton (593) and one by

Rogerson (641) dealt with the use of play therapy in clinics or hospitals for the mentally ill. Another book by Davis (592) and one by Slavson (648) are concerned with the contribution of group activities to the promotion of mental health. Many articles deal with the theory and with practical problems of play therapy (596, 607, 637, 658). These articles stress the following important principles:

1. Play therapy is interrelated with other diagnostic and therapeutic measures; it is really not a special therapy.
2. In order to be meaningful, the technic must systematically reveal the dynamics of the therapeutic situation.
3. The aims of this kind of therapy are diagnosis, catharsis, re-education or reconditioning, and sublimation.
4. An essential feature of the technic is the encouragement of the children to play and to express their phantasies and aggressions with as few inhibitions as possible. The therapist must be passive as to group activity; "highly active in sensing and pointing out feelings and attitudes displayed by the children in their relationship to one another and to himself" (597: 592).

Among the articles are those that describe the use of play therapy for emotional problems; in hospitals for mentally ill children (569, 594: Part Five, 638); in social agencies (580, 616); and in a research clinic on child development (603). Bender and Schilder (575) presented illustrations of influences on the play of children. Gitelson and collaborators (606) gained insight into the generally defensive initial reactions of children, and the "internal progress" made through the therapists' skill in changing their attitude toward themselves and in helping them to discover better ways out of difficult situations. About five-eighths of the cases were judged to be improved by the clinical treatment involving play therapy.

One of the difficulties in interpreting children's responses in play situations lies in our lack of knowledge of the behavior of well-adjusted children under the same conditions. Ackerman (564, 565) made an important contribution to this problem by obtaining quantitative data on the constructive-destructive play performances of five groups of well-adjusted, maladjusted, and delinquent children of different ages in a controlled play situation. He reported specific differences between well-adjusted and maladjusted children in their constructive approach to the play situation. "Growing older in a well-adjusted direction signifies an increase in constructive activity of a flexible type; growing older in a maladjusted direction means an exaggerated increase in both constructive and destructive activity of a relatively rigid type" (565: 284). In addition to the service value of play technics in the treatment of clinical cases they are important as instruments of research in studying some of the more difficult problems of human relations. For example, some progress has been made in the study of patterns and principles of sibling rivalry through control-situation experiments. Through activity in play situations so controlled as to satisfy the requirements of experimental procedure and yet sufficiently flexible to allow variety of behavior, the feelings of children can be revealed (617).

Dramatics is another form of play therapy used in the treatment of behavior problems. At Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital plays written and acted by the adolescent patients are discussed with them by a psychiatrist after each performance. The procedure is described in detail by Curran (589), who attributed to this form of therapy occupational, recreational, social, and cathartic values. Similar in diagnostic and therapeutic values are the puppet shows described by Bender and Woltmann (577). Somewhat more technical is the psychodrama developed by Moreno (630, 631) with cases of serious mental disorder. The theory underlying this technic is that through the patient's own dramatization of situations threatening to him, he may learn to understand his world and accept it rather than fear it.

Art Therapy

The theory of the therapeutic value of art has been discussed by Bender (573) and specific technics described by Bender and Woltmann (576), Curran (588), Despert (594: Part Two), and McIntosh (622). The common emphasis is on encouraging the child to express himself freely in the art material provided, for the psychiatrist is primarily interested in what the individual wants to create rather than in the artistic value of the product. Interpretation is aided by the subject's spontaneous conversation about his art work. Validation of the technic has been largely on the basis of clinical experience. Several attempts have been made, however, to determine the relationship between characteristics of drawings and type of mental disorder. According to Schube and Cowell (645) art work that is rated fairly high in productivity, design, imagery, and technic is produced principally by persons with dementia praecox, paranoid conditions, psychopathic personality, alcoholic psychosis, and the manic type of manic-depressive psychosis, while low ratings on the same points are usually made by persons with psychoneurosis, the depressed type of manic-depressive psychosis, and psychosis due to drug addiction. Moreover, changes in the mental disorder were accompanied by corresponding changes in the art produced. Despert (594: Part Three) was interested in evidences of regression in the drawings of psychotic children which were not present in the drawings of neurotic children and those with behavior problems. Recognizing the need of a comparison with normal individuals, Abel (563) studied the performance on a drawing test that allowed for freedom of expression and interpretation of six groups—schizophrenic patients, high-school boys and girls, industrial high-school girls, adults of normal or higher intelligence, and two groups of primitive people. The schizophrenics differed from normal subjects in their lack of constructive ideas and obsessive tendencies in following instructions. Even the subnormals made more flexible designs than the schizophrenic patients. The rigid products made by one group of primitive people were due to their inability to grasp the instructions.

Occupational Therapy

Occupational therapy has moved away from a mere time-filling activity and has become individualized and social in its aims. An illustration of this point of view may be found in the article by Anderson (570) describing project work such as the remodeling of an old cottage into a craft shop and the development of a marionette show. These projects provided opportunity for creative ability, individualized therapy, and a sense of contributing to an entire group. Other ways in which needs of the individual are met by different types of therapy are discussed by Menninger (627).

Illustrative Case Studies and Specific Descriptions

In the REVIEW for December 1936 a list of journals frequently containing illustrative case studies was suggested. Case study material is also included in most of the books mentioned and in many additional articles (566, 567, 572, 583, 598, 628, 662). Cases illustrating play therapy with children were reported by Fries (602), Levy (618), Holmer (610), Conn (587), and Symonds (652), and with schizophrenic patients and normal people by Rosenzweig and Shakow (643).

Detailed descriptions of the total clinical procedure employed in centers for mental hygiene have been written for schools for exceptional children (566, 586); summer camps for children (582, 585, 604, 662), some of which serve as an extension of a social agency or psychiatric clinic; and for boys' clubs (623). Technical approaches used in the study and treatment of children's emotional problems in a setup such as that of the Psychiatric Institute are described and evaluated by Despert (594: Part Six).

Appraisal of the Effects of Treatment

Subjective judgment predominates in attempts to rate children's adjustment at the beginning and at the end of a treatment period. The accomplishments, accordingly, are difficult of evaluation. In a group of fifty-eight clinical cases rated by Rogers (640) almost half were rated satisfactory or better at the end of a year of treatment and only three were rated as "poor or failure in adjustment." A follow-up of forty-three children who had attended a psychiatric camp (585) showed that eighteen were judged by both staff and parents to have improved and six to be unimproved during the winter. Conflicting reports were made of the rest of the group. The results of therapy of one hundred psychiatric cases treated in a hospital for an average of twenty-four days were reported by Masserman and Carmichael (626) as successful in about 60 percent of the cases who were treated for neurosis. Two-thirds of these cases who showed definite improvement in the favorable hospital environment,

supplemented by physiotherapy, occupational therapy, and superficial psychotherapy, attained a degree of recovery that permitted satisfactory and stable adjustments.

Because of the impossibility of controlling all the variables in problems of human adjustment it would seem desirable to develop more comprehensive clinical methods of appraising psychotherapy rather than to work toward a narrow though more precise psychometric objectivity in measurement. Investigations along the following lines should be continued:

1. The accurate detailed description of procedure and results in many individual cases including a description of environmental forces.
2. Studies of clearly defined groups, such as apparently well-adjusted individuals, definitely pathological cases, and emotionally unstable delinquents.
3. Developmental studies of individuals' adjustment over a period of ten or more years.
4. Semantic approaches to the study of the influence of clarification of concepts on adjustment.

Therapy through play and group activities may well be explored further to ascertain whether these technics are effective as well as economical. With the emphasis upon studying personality as a process, adapting treatment to individual differences, recognizing the subtle influence of the personality of the therapist, and understanding developmental trends in adjustment, the most promising technic of mental hygiene seems to be the comprehensive cumulative case history.

CHAPTER VIII

The Pre-Psychotic Personality¹

RALPH M. PATTERSON

IN ITS INITIAL STAGES the mental hygiene movement concerned itself with improvement in care of the mentally ill. As the movement gathered momentum more and more emphasis was placed on prevention. With the realization of the importance of childhood development and adjustment, many investigators focused their attention on the relationship between childhood difficulties and adult illness. Those investigators who have contemplated studies of the pre-psychotic personality have found themselves confronted with numerous handicaps. The first difficulty is the demarcation of the field. Whereas one investigator may consider the pre-psychotic personality as limited to the prodromal period of a psychosis, another may consider the term synonymous with "minor psychosis" or psychoneurosis. A third may refer to the "borderline group," whereas a fourth considers "pre-psychotic" equivalent to potentially psychotic but makes the term practically all-inclusive.

Certain recent psychiatric texts—Rosanoff (695), Noyes (693), Menninger (687), Muncie (691), Henry (683), Henderson and Gillespie (682), and Adler (664)—devoted very little space to a presentation of personality types and less or no space to a discussion of the pre-psychotic personality. Rosanoff (695) considered all persons as potential psychiatric material and others took a somewhat similar viewpoint in considering the psychosis as an exaggeration of normal efforts toward adjustment. Adler (664) dismissed the subject briefly and frankly by concluding that we have no possible way of predicting the outbreak of a psychosis. Menninger (687) discussed the classical personality types as cycloid and schizoid in considerable detail but did not attempt to predict psychoses.

The methods of approach used to investigate this field have been varied. Clinical or case study methods have been the most thorough but there is a large subjective factor in such studies. The case study method is also handicapped by its time-consuming nature and consequent limitation in numbers of individuals studied. The questionnaire method permits the study of large numbers of individuals but is so subjective that its reliability must be questioned. The Rohrschach method is as yet insufficiently used but is considered by individuals familiar with its use as offering considerable promise for the investigation of personality difficulties. Up to the present no large series of individuals has been studied over a sufficiently long period of time to determine which personality patterns of childhood actually become psychoses in adult life. On the contrary, most studies to date have been carried out in reverse, that is, investigation in retrospect of the previous personalities of individuals already psychotic.

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 498.

The dementia praecox² group has probably received more consideration than any other and the pre-schizophrenic personality has been relatively sharply defined. Milici (688) considered the schizoid child as definitely not normal and described the pre-dementia praecox disposition as quiet, gentle, docile, well-behaved, timid, self-conscious, with aversion to play activities; inability to get along with others; little curiosity; lack of emotional depth, initiative, and aggression; dependence on others to make decisions; inefficient and reluctant to change. Myers and Witmer (692) suggested that on the basis of a study of forty-five cases the early life of the dementia praecox patient diverges much less from the average than is generally considered. Claude (671) considered hysterical patients as candidates for schizophrenia. Stern (698), in considering this subject from the psychoanalytic viewpoint, inferred that the "rigid personality" may be the prelude to schizophrenia.

The psychoanalytic approach is further represented in those efforts to relate homosexuality to schizophrenia, particularly paranoid schizophrenia. Brenner (669) reported a case which he considered clear evidence of a homosexual conflict previous to the development of the paranoid dementia praecox, in keeping with postulations of Freud. Hamilton (679) remarked that homosexual conflicts are practically universal in adolescents, and if strong and deep-seated they result in a splitting of the personality with the development of paranoid dementia praecox. Hunt (684) reported that in a neighborhood group of boys accustomed to indulging in homosexual practices a certain number received religious teaching in opposition to these practices. Both schizophrenia and manic-depressive psychoses developed among those individuals with socially induced conflicts between their religious teaching and their previous homosexual proclivities, whereas no psychoses developed in those members of the group who received no religious training. This tendency to consider homosexuality as developmental rather than constitutional is further supported by Barahal (666).

In analyzing the results of psychotherapy at the Girls' Service League of America, Betterly (667) selected certain patterns of reaction which were considered to be of prognostic significance, although not indicative of a pre-psychotic state. Adolescents, who were selective in their aggressive behavior, responded to frustration by renewed attack, and showed evidence of relative maturity, were found to have a high probability of successful outcome, as were also those who were introvertly submissive, mature, and who reacted to frustration by avoiding or retiring from the frustrating situation. Those who responded poorly manifested traits such as the following: generalized aggression, anesthetic submission, withdrawal, "receding" maturity, relative immaturity, many superficial acquaintances but no friends, no capacity for developing or maintaining friendships or interests, inability to carry through plans to accomplishment satisfactorily to self.

² The terms dementia praecox and schizophrenia are used interchangeably in this paper.

Stengel (697) discussed the difficulty in differentiation between the prodrome of schizophrenia and a neurosis but did not arrive at any solution differentiating a pre-psychotic state from a relatively benign neurosis. Blitzsten (668) and Hadley (678) regarded personality as a manifestation of interpersonal relationships. Jacobsen (685) collected an extensive list of personality qualities found in the classical conceptions of cyclothymes and schizothymes. A much less sharp differentiation between the pre-psychotic personalities of manic-depressives, alcoholics, and schizophrenics was found by Darrohn (673). In keeping with the impressions generally held, the manic-depressives were found to be popular and sociable as children, but in contrast with the usual findings it was noted that nearly as many were shy and withdrawn. He found that they were during childhood independent, close-mouthed, very sensitive, but model children.

In evaluating the pre-psychotic personality of the individuals who develop manic-depressive psychosis, the individual *per se* received less attention than did the situation, in the studies conducted by Anthonisen (665). He considered the manic-depressive psychosis a result of the efforts of an individual to overcome disturbing factors in the environment and felt that it is necessary to disregard constitutional predisposition. Clark (670), in discussing early manifestations of mental disorders, stressed the importance of a "change in disposition." He avoided discussion of specific syndromes or particular patterns in a potentially psychotic individual but emphasized change as depicted in such symptoms as: apathy, excitability, anxiety, insomnia, fatigability, suspiciousness, and unsociability. The psychosis itself, according to Essen-Möller (674), represents a manifestation of personality insufficiency. His discussion placed emphasis on the individual's reaction to experiences rather than upon any constitutional predisposition, and followed the approach introduced by Sjöbring (696). Rice (694) and Moore (689, 690) made a number of studies directed specifically at the question of the pre-psychotic personality. Each individual was rated by himself and three other individuals. The traits were grouped in the analysis and certain groups were found to indicate a manic or a schizophrenic trend. Moore did not, however, pretend to be able to select pre-psychotic individuals.

The Thurstone Personality Schedule was used by Conklin (672) as a means of differentiating abnormal and psychotic. The test was given to 345 normals, 34 neurotics, 52 manic-depressives, and 78 schizophrenics. It was found that 50 items permitted the differentiation of the abnormal from the normal and that 25 items differentiated the psychotic from both the normal and the non-psychotic abnormal. It was not found possible to differentiate manic-depressives from the basic psychotic pattern, but 20 items did differentiate the schizophrenics from other psychotics. Although the test is not offered as a means of detecting the pre-psychotics, it would seem that it might be so used, detecting at least certain tendencies toward a severe mental illness.

The personality traits of patients suffering from involutional melancholia were studied by Goldsmith (676). The most outstanding characteristics of the group studied were as follows: 81 percent had few or no friends; 67 percent were shy, avoided attention, and felt they were "wall-flowers"; 81 percent were solitary in their reactions to a social group; 71 percent had a high degree of self-sufficiency; 62 percent were close-mouthed; 38 percent enjoyed quarrels and stood for their rights; 62 percent were always on the go. One-half of the group were considered model children. Stubbornness, worrisomeness, and anxiety were traits which were very frequent and 38 percent were considered meticulous. In comparison with the alcoholic group studied by Darrohn (673), involutional melancholics were found to be more frequently self-depreciative than the manic-depressives and less subject to mood change. In contrast with the dementia praecox individuals they were more frequently characterized by great energy output. Goldsmith concluded that those who develop psychoses in the climacteric have difficulties rooted in early life.

The relationship of mental deficiency to the pre-psychotic personality was studied by James (686). He suggested that a psychosis is liable to supervene in a considerable number of mental defectives or that there is a relatively large group of psychoses which begin at a very early age and are at first indistinguishable from mental deficiency. In his opinion the "unstable group" of mental defectives, particularly that group possessing propensities of violence, is related to dementia praecox.

Gudjons (677) followed one hundred psychopaths and found that but three of these developed schizophrenia. Despite this, he said the psychopaths might be having the first manifestations of a mental disorder.

Psychopathic personality, mental deficiency, and psychosis are frequently considered in studies of delinquency. Healey (680) and Healey and Bronner (681) found that in the study of delinquents the classical personality types of extrovert and introvert were not sharply demarcated, most individuals being ambiverts. Although the term pre-psychotic is used in a general way, more than 25 percent of the delinquents were found to have a definitely abnormal personality in contrast with less than 2 percent of the controls. Other studies of delinquents, Ackerson (663) and Glueck and Glueck (675), showed similar tendencies.

Summary—Studies of the pre-psychotic personality have been handicapped by lack of objectivity and the absence of a sufficiently prolonged period of study. The potentially schizophrenic personality has been fairly well defined but no sharp delineation has been developed prognosticating other forms of psychosis. There is need for a study beginning with subjects at an early age, followed through by periodic investigations to determine which develop mental illness, what type of psychosis, and under what circumstances. Such a study should include a large group of juvenile delinquents. A mental hygiene program might then be focused more efficiently and effectively on the sources of mental illness.

CHAPTER IX

Physical Hygiene and Health Education¹

MABEL E. RUGEN

HYGIENE HAS BEEN DEFINED as "the branch of medical science pertaining to the preservation of health." Some of the factors and practices that influence the development and maintenance of physical health are nutrition, sleep and rest, exercise, fatigue, disease and infection, accidents, drugs and narcotics. Abundant research into each of these factors has been made and continues to be made. Because of the highly technical nature of many of these studies, it is deemed inappropriate to include them in this chapter. Readers interested in research in the physiology of the human organism are therefore referred to basic references in the fields of physiology, nutrition, and bio-chemistry, and to the medical science periodicals.

Health education has been defined as the sum total of all experiences that contribute toward the development of individual and group practices, attitudes, and knowledge that make for better personal, community, and racial health (812). It is conceived more and more as the creation of conditions and experience that will foster good physical and mental health. The preceding summary of studies in the area of health and physical education appeared as Chapter V by Strang and Lane in the *REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH* for December 1937, and reviewed the literature up to July 1937. Since that time more than two hundred and fifty articles have appeared under the titles of physical hygiene and health education (785). While the mass of this material does not deal with research as such, it does indicate the scope of interest in this area. The bulk of the references cited in this chapter pertain to health education, rather than to physical hygiene, for the reason given above.

Philosophy, Organization, and Planning for Health

The recent statement of purposes of education of the Educational Policies Commission recognizes health education as essential for self-realization (770). The importance of physical security as a purpose of education was stressed in the report on socio-economic goals (769); the significance of health to social security and to civic welfare is discussed by Perrott and Holland (778), and Edgerton (724). Perrott and Holland presented the findings of the National Health Survey, 1935-36, and some of the results of the sickness survey of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, 1928-31. These are the only sources of information on illness in the general population of the United States. Perrott and Holland discussed the provisions of the National Health Program which "aims to

¹ Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 499.

destroy the correlation between receipt of health services and income."

Despite this emphasis on the importance of health for security, Edmonson (725) pointed out debatable issues that must be solved before school programs can become more effective. The Educational Policies Commission (771) related the school health program to community services; Moss and Orion, as abstracted by Teschner (800), presented the report of state directors of health and physical education; while Wilson and others (797) reported the suggestions of a committee that has gained the support of eight nationally important professional health groups. Spock (792) defined the task of the school physician. Nyswander and Derryberry (775) suggested principles to be observed. H. Walker (808) presented the idea of cooperative planning on a statewide basis as developed in Tennessee.

Professional Preparation for Personnel

A committee on professional training (773) studied health education courses and set up a group of standards for the selection of students planning to enter health and physical education. Stein (793) suggested training in health education for prospective teachers of physical education. A committee of the Western Society of College Departments of Physical Education (746) studied the opinions of fifty leaders regarding what should be the experience and knowledge of prospective physical education teachers in health education. The American Public Health Association has had a series of committees engaged in the study of qualifications for various health personnel, among which is one interested in school health educators (782). Sundwall (798) summarized the qualifications in terms of training in science, pedagogy, and special problems. The second National Conference on College Hygiene (772) set up qualifications for health teachers to include: thorough background in biology, chemistry, and physics; knowledge of physiology, bacteriology, psychology, sociology, and economics; understanding of the principles, psychology, and philosophy of education; contact with good facilities for instruction; and a "fixed determination" to keep up with the new knowledge in preventive medicine and sanitary science. Increasing emphasis is being placed on the responsibility of the classroom teacher for health teaching. Hussey (745) stressed teaching *for* health, that is, conducting the teaching process in such a way as not to militate against those factors that make for good physical and mental health.

Teaching Methods

Recent emphasis in method has been on a recognition of the idea that health is something that is lived—health education permeates the total curriculum—health teaching, therefore, is an outcome of the total teaching process. Health is not an end in itself but a means to an end. Relating

bodily condition to achievement of those things that are desired by the individual provides motivation for improvement of practices that affect bodily condition, such as nutrition, sleep, and rest. This is the thesis expressed by Hussey (745). Nash (768) maintained that there are "teachable moments" when health instruction is meaningful. These include: for the child, when he shows curiosity and when he feels he is different from others; for the adult, when he is frightened and when he wants something better for his children. Conrad and Meister (712) applied principles of teaching accepted in other areas to health education.

At the University of Vermont (750) it was found that the use of motion pictures to supplement a series of seven lectures in hygiene resulted in a 4 percent increase in knowledge, as measured by objective tests, over the lecture method. In addition, students expressed greater liking for the course, there was less absence from class, and it was more economical of instructor time. At Antioch College, Guernsey (737) reported several experiments in health teaching which extended over a three-year period. A diagnostic health knowledge test was given to entering freshmen. Each student was urged by his adviser to improve his knowledge where the need was indicated. Books were put on reserve in the college library and specific references given the student. He was told that he would be tested at the end of the year. Despite this motivation freshmen showed, on the average, a gain of only nine points. In another experiment the diagnostic test was given to entering freshmen and they were required to enrol for a one-credit health course. Seven lectures, at which attendance was optional, were given, but the student was expected to do about twenty hours of reading based on a syllabus. Students admitted studying only four to six hours for the course. Guernsey concluded that under present conditions of time and credit students are not interested in self-directed study.

More general accounts came from E. Brown (708) and Thomas (801). The status of health teaching in high schools, according to Beard (706), is startlingly inadequate. He investigated the science background of 6,455 high-school graduates matriculating at a large university and observed that only 9 percent had had hygiene, only 22 percent physiology, 50 percent biology, and 62 percent general science. One of the most extensive studies is the report of the Regents' Inquiry for New York State (815) which investigated, through the medium of trained observers and interviewers, the status of environmental sanitation, mental hygiene, health instruction, physical education and recreation, and health services in the schools. Recommendations stressed the need for greater integration and administrative cooperation and planning. New legislation and improved organization for state and local leadership were also proposed. A survey of 3,517 New York school children's twenty-four-hour health behavior was reviewed by Green (735).

Curriculum Content

Study of the kind of experiences that should be incorporated into the school health programs, as based on the needs of children, is receiving more attention. Content is being examined in terms of its meaning to children as well as in terms of its scientific accuracy. Nash (768) warned against cluttering health teaching with items that have no relation to physiological function. Rugen (788) suggested a variety of kinds of experiences desirable for health teaching. *Health Goals of the School Child* (764) presented items for content; Dobbs (721) showed how health content permeates the total elementary-school curriculum when it is centered about the growth needs of children. *The Problem-Solving Approach to Health Teaching* (763) suggested how the survey technic may be used to find health problems in the local situation, and another bulletin (765) gave accounts of how teachers have used this approach. Statistical data on morbidity and mortality (722, 811) or problems such as alcohol and narcotics (726) can become sources of information for health teaching. Utilizing individual health records (755) and data obtained from studying child behavior in school (704) is suggested for making health teaching more meaningful.

Cornely (713) reported a study of the health problems of self-supporting college students. He noted lower health status in this group and found chronic fatigue the greatest single health problem. Peterson (779) reported a study of the food habits of 1,624 sixth- and seventh-grade pupils in Chicago as a means of interesting teachers and pupils in food habits before studying foods and meal planning. Student interests were reported by J. Rogers (787) as the result of a questionnaire study of high-school and college students. Health knowledge surveys also point out needs for content. Loy and Husband (758), employing the Michigan Adult Health Knowledge Test (730), discovered areas of information that needed greater emphasis at Kansas State Agricultural College. Orringer (777), investigating syphilis and gonorrhea, came to a similar conclusion at Pennsylvania State College. Kirkpatrick (754), reporting for a special committee, pointed out the need for more accurate information. Kilander (753), studying 2,000 subjects in New Jersey high schools and colleges, found many misconceptions and superstitions regarding health facts. Nice (809:72), continuing the investigations of McLoon (809:71), developed health knowledge tests for use with elementary-grade children, using oral directions and pictures. Christensen (711) studied the hygiene words occurring five times or more in selected hygiene textbooks.

A number of studies in the field of safety education with particular reference to accidents and course of study content have appeared recently. Fosse (731) investigated the status of safety education in 35 cities with populations of 100,000 or more. H. Brown (709) studied the accidents in three boroughs of greater New York (Manhattan, Bronx, and Brooklyn) that occurred to 81 per cent of all the pupils in kindergarten through the

ninth grade. She deduced principles and procedures on which safety programs can be built in the three boroughs studied. Blanchard (707) investigated the experiences that 5,180 high-school (eighth to twelfth grade) students in 18 Michigan schools had had with administering first aid. More eighth-graders, 70 percent, than any other group gave first aid, but the procedures used were adequate in only 23 percent of the cases. McCristal and Miller (761) investigated the status of the health education and physical education requirement for men in 62 colleges and universities and reported that on the average two courses are required for graduation in 61 percent of the schools. Glascock (733) conducted a similar study for the high schools of Indiana.

Several bibliographies of helpful source materials for health education have been published. Kilander (752) listed textbooks for elementary and high schools; three issues of *Hygeia* each contained lists of books on health (701); and the Progressive Education Association published a list of the most helpful books in health and physical education (810). The *Journal of the American Medical Association* calls attention to their hygiene loan collection (747); a list of health books for lay readers is published by the Medical Library Association (756); the American Library Association issues selected bibliographies on health subjects (702); and the *Science News Letter* carries new books on science (774).

Environmental Sanitation and Physical Fitness

Factors which affect the relationship between housing and health are presented in *Public Health Reports* (729) as follows: (a) lack of sanitary facilities and overcrowding; (b) malnutrition; (c) lack of medical care; and (d) unhealthful occupations. At Kansas State Agricultural College, Loy and Husband (759) investigated housing conditions and found a number of items that needed improvement if the health of students was to be insured. These included overcrowding, inadequate cleanliness and sleeping facilities, poor health among householders, and ill students who had not been reported.

Findings of the health examination should provide data for guidance in school activities. The health examination is spoken of as part of the program for human conservation and, today, of national defense. Jones and Hatfield (749) investigated health examination laws issued by state departments of education for all pupils and by high-school athletic associations for pupils who participate in interscholastic athletic contests. Findings indicate that 16 states and the District of Columbia require the health examination of all pupils, while 26 and the District of Columbia require it for athletes. Physical education programs should be based on the findings of health examinations so that deleterious effects from exercise will not result. Wade (806) presented the findings of health examinations for 5,573 high-school students in Seattle and showed how these

results are utilized in classifying boys and girls for physical education programs.

Templeton (799) reported that in 1935 only 26 percent of the applicants examined for the navy were accepted. The seven defects responsible for 69 percent of the rejections include: errors of refraction (vision); defective physical development; defective teeth; abnormalities of the teeth; flat feet; color blindness; and hernia. Dental deficiencies accounted for 27 percent of all rejections. Wilson and McClancy (814) stated four trends in school health examinations. Turner (802) presented a plan for improving dental conditions in the United States. (Dental defects are the most frequent of all physical defects among school children.)

Physical fitness is a desirable asset in human conservation, yet expert opinion varies and research is incomplete as to what is meant or how it may be measured. F. Rogers (786) and McCloy (760) maintained that physical fitness can be evaluated in terms of a special physical fitness and strength test. A considerable number of studies (796) have appeared to support their thesis, also a recent one by Walker (807) on youth in CCC camps. Alexander (700), studying a number of factors in camp life that influence physical health (diet, type of activity, accident, illness, etc.), concluded that the *weight* index is a fairly reliable one because it can be controlled. J. Williams (813) pointed out the fallacy of thinking of physique as synonymous with health or physical fitness. Anthropometry (748, 762), strength indexes (710, 791), and tests of cardiovascular efficiency (740, 767) have all been employed in an effort to determine "fitness," but research in these areas is for the most part inconclusive. Powell (781) presented a review of 76 studies dealing with various physical indexes. She included somatometric indexes (those based on age, height, weight, diameters and girths); physiometric (those based on vital capacity, pulse ratio, muscular strength, blood pressure, etc.); and indexes of motor performance. Studies on growth and development, as reported in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH for February 1939, presented extensive data relative to health status and physical fitness.

Physiological Effects of Exercise

Most of the research dealing with the physiological effects of exercise appear in the journals of the medical health sciences and will not be reviewed here. Adams (699) studied the effects of hard physical labor on certain anthropometric measurements of Negro women, seventeen to twenty-four years of age, and found that most of the measurements were significantly larger than in the nonlaboring group. Wellesley College laboratories (809: 24-30) investigated the relation of exercise to resistance to infection in white rats and also studied factors that make for physical fitness and endurance (809: 10-24). Studies of this latter type are based on the idea that "endurance is related principally to circulatory and respiratory efficiency, to the state of nutrition, and to the training of

the individual." The conclusion to this series of studies indicates that while "some progress has been made in the understanding of the factors responsible for physical fitness and endurance, we are still unable to recommend any cardio-vascular or metabolism test for the objective determination of these qualities." Popular attention is called to the experimental work at the University of Minnesota, where X-ray studies of athletes have shown that their hearts do not increase in size. The heart of the trained athlete beats more slowly and fills and contracts more completely at each beat to accommodate the demands made on it (728). Deaver (717) showed that heart disease is *not* a result of physical exertion and suggested types of physical activities for the cardiac patient.

Hellebrandt and Myer (739) reviewed the "physiological data significant to participation by women in physical activities," and made certain practical generalizations. Sinclair (789) investigated "the effects of varying degrees of physical activity during the menstrual period upon the red blood cell count" and found that "participation in physical education activities during menstruation contributes towards maintaining or increasing the normal red blood cell count when the subjects concerned present no abnormalities in physical condition and are trained in such activities." The study by Hellebrandt and Meyer (739) supported this conclusion. Hodgson (742) studied certain physiological reactions of women following participation in basketball and found no significant differences for participation in the two- or three-court type of game.

Fatigue is an important factor in fitness and athletic performance. Goorley (734) reviewed the literature on "chemical factors of fatigue" and summarized the facts known regarding its causes. "Training partially overcomes some of these causes of fatigue by increasing both the heart and lung capacities, assuring better carbon dioxide exchange. Training also increases the-alkali reserve of the blood resulting in greater oxygen-combining power. Furthermore, the actions of the athlete become more reflex in nature." Dupain (723), working with trained athletes, concluded that a diet "high in fat, excessive in carbohydrates, and low in protein with adequate vitamins and minerals increases endurance and sustaining qualities, while a diet low in fat and sugar and high in meat protein, with adequate minerals and vitamins, increases muscular speed and kick-off, but does not favor long-distance work or endurance tests."

There are a number of studies that deal with the therapeutic values of physical activity, especially as it pertains to body mechanics and postural training (809: 89-97). In addition, the investigation of Hunt, Ashcraft, and Johnson (744) pointed out the value of physical education activities in dealing with psychopathic individuals. A study of one hundred and fifty patients, ages 15 to 65, who experienced physical recreation three times a week, showed they had better appetite for food, slept longer and more soundly, seemed more cheerful; some developed new interests and enthusiasms, and all looked forward to the recreational period.

Evaluation Studies

Evaluation of physical hygiene and health education is implied in some of the studies mentioned previously. The health examination, for example, is in one sense an instrument of evaluation. Likewise, comparison of vital statistical data over a period of years shows progress made. Comprehensive studies on evaluation, however, are missing. The most complete investigation, that by Hardy and Hoefer (738), was reported in the REVIEW for December 1937. Bauer (705) raised the question whether results can be measured. Vaughn and others (805), on the other hand, showed the values of education of the public in preventive measures for tuberculosis. Appraisal forms of the American Public Health Association (703) presented standards of good practice for the total program. Strachan (794) and Turner and Burton (803) suggested criteria for use in evaluating the school health education program.

Dearborn (716) presented a comprehensive checklist survey for the secondary school, based on good practice and approved standards and objectives. Committee reports (797, 800), referred to earlier, contained potential criteria for evaluation and might become the basis for self-appraisal forms. Rugen (788) stressed the importance of evaluating in terms of objectives and suggested ways to do this. Van Buskirk (804) reported on junior college student reactions. Hussey (745) reviewed the literature on tools for evaluation and concluded: "Results of teaching for health are particularly difficult to measure because the success of the program depends upon the strength and performance of self-impelling motives to follow proper health practices. It is difficult to measure these motives, drives, interests or attitudes" (745: 301). Health knowledge tests are available for evaluating the acquisition of information. Derryberry and Franzen (719) developed a test of "health awareness." The Detroit Public Schools (720) and the Massachusetts State Department of Health (714) have tests of "health consciousness" and information; Gates and Strang (732) revised their health knowledge test with separate forms for elementary- and secondary-school pupils. The technics employed by the Committee on Evaluation of the Progressive Education Association (783) offered suggestions for improving the paper-and-pencil test usually used. Tests on the application of principles and the nature of proof, for example, are applicable in the health instructional field.

Much research remains to be done in this area, as in the areas of teaching method and curriculum content. Strang (795) suggested problems for further research. These are still pertinent. Progress, however, probably is dependent upon our ability to clarify concepts and objectives and to develop new tools and technics for research.

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Chapter III. Adjustment in the School and College Situation

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Chapter VII. Technics and Instruments of Mental Hygiene Diagnosis and Therapy

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¹ Corrected up to December 1, 1940. Errors should be reported to the Secretary-Treasurer immediately.

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* Elected to membership beginning January 1, 1941.

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* Elected to membership beginning January 1, 1941.

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* Elected to membership beginning January 1, 1941.

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* Elected to membership beginning January 1, 1941.

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- Nelson, Milton G.**, Dean, New York State College for Teachers, Albany, New York.
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* Elected to membership beginning January 1, 1941.

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* Elected to membership beginning January 1, 1941.

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* Elected to membership beginning January 1, 1941.

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